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THE MEDITERRANEAN AND EASTERN COLONIES

HENRY FROWDE, M.A.
PUBLISHER TO THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD
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A

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

OF THE

BRITISH COLONIES

BY

C. P. LUCAS, C.B.

VOL. I. THE MEDITERRANEAN AND EASTERN COLONIES

SECOND EDITION

REVISED AND BROUGHT UP TO DATE BY

R. E. STUBBS, B.A.
OF CORPUS CHRISTI COLLEGE, OXFORD, AND
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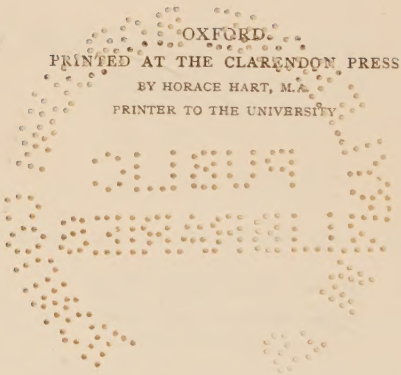

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

THE pages of the present edition have been, in practically every case, revised, in manuscript or proof, by officers, now or lately in the Colonial Service, who possess special local knowledge of the dependencies to which they relate.

I have to express my gratitude for the assistance which has been readily given, whenever I have asked for it.

I am especially indebted to Sir W. H. Treacher, K.C.M.G., late Resident-General of the Federated Malay States, and formerly Principal Representative of the British North Borneo Company in North Borneo; to Captain A. H. Young, C.M.G., late Chief Secretary of Cyprus; and to Brigadier-General E. J. Swayne, C.B., the first Civil Commissioner of the Somaliland Protectorate.

The officers referred to are, of course, not responsible for any opinions expressed in the book.

R. E. STUBBS.

June, 1906.

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HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

OF

THE BRITISH COLONIES

VOL. I

INTRODUCTION

This volume contains some account of those dependencies of Great Britain which lie on or near to the great trade routes to India and the Far East.[1] None of them is a colony in the true sense of the word, i.e. a place beyond the seas which has been made a home for the British people, but with this exception they show examples of every type of the dependencies of the empire, from the rock-fortress of Gibraltar to the great agricultural community of Ceylon, and from a pure Crown colony to a protectorate over which His Majesty's Government exercise no control beyond the direction of foreign relations.

The European dependencies[2] are Gibraltar, Malta with its dependent islands, and Cyprus, which, though not in the strict sense a British possession, is yet occupied and administered by Great Britain.

[1] India is omitted as not falling within the scope of this volume.

[2] The Channel Islands are not included in this list. They are the only remaining part of the ancient duchy of Normandy, retained by the King as the Representative of its Dukes. They are governed by their own laws, and the intervention of the British Parliament in their

These three dependencies are well placed for commanding both the trade of the Mediterranean and the route to the East and Australasia.

Gibraltar is at the Western opening of the inland sea. Cyprus is at its Eastern extremity, nearer than any other of the Levantine islands to Egypt and the Suez Canal. Malta is in the centre, half-way between Gibraltar and Cyprus, and near the coasts of Italy and Tunis—the two points in the circle of the Mediterranean which in old days justified the advantages of their natural position by giving to Rome and Carthage pre-eminence over their neighbours.

The distance by sea from Plymouth to Gibraltar is 1,050 nautical miles; from Gibraltar to Malta 980; from Malta to Port Said about 940, and to Cyprus rather under 1,000 miles; and from Cyprus to Port Said 250 miles.

The whole aspect of the Mediterranean was changed by the opening of the Suez Canal. Viewing it under its modern conditions as the high road to the East, the three dependencies of Great Britain in this sea are, taken together, a singularly strong chain of positions. But it must not be forgotten that the great colonizing nation of the present day holds points which in old times would have practically tapped the whole of the Mediterranean.

While the world centred round the inland sea, and that sea was all in all, the parts of its shores, from which commerce and civilization flowed, were the coasts of Phoenicia and Asia Minor, the Delta of the Nile, the African promontory of Carthage, and the three Northern peninsulas of Greece, Italy, and Spain.

Gibraltar between Spain and Africa; Malta between Sicily and Tunis; Cyprus, hard by Phoenicia, near to Egypt, and

affairs is extremely rare. In Professor Freeman's words (*Historical Geography of Europe*, chap. xiii), 'Practically the islands have, during all changes, remained attached to the English Crown, but they have never been incorporated with the kingdom.' Any business connected with them passes through the Home Office, not the Colonial Office.

not far from Greece and the coast of Asia Minor which the Greeks had made their own, seem to bear witness that, while the minds of the English have been set on the East, they have, by the mere force of geographical attraction, occupied the points which were connecting links between the various commercial and colonizing districts of the ancient world.

The history of these dependencies has followed their geography. They have been in past times points at which Europe and the East, Christianity and Mohammedanism, have met. And, if they have now passed into the hands of a Christian power from the North of Europe, their present owner has, beyond all Western nations, an interest in the East, and has become the sovereign of a large multitude of Mohammedan peoples.

Geographers have often pointed out that there is a rough general similarity between the outlines of Europe and Asia: and especially that the three Southern peninsulas of Asia—Arabia, India, and Malay India—are magnified editions of the three Southern peninsulas of Europe—Spain, Italy, and Greece.

The European dependencies are in some sort outposts to the three European peninsulas; for even Cyprus, though it lies so close to Asia Minor, is and always has been in close connexion with Greece.

Similarly, in her course of expansion, Great Britain has laid hold of the three Southern projections of Asia. Aden in Arabia is an almost exact counterpart of Gibraltar in Spain. But if Italy and India, the two central peninsulas, be compared, it is seen at once that the English have done much more in Asia than in Europe. In Europe they only hold Malta over against the extreme end of Italy, whereas in Asia they seem to have instinctively recognized, as history has recognized, the pre-eminence which must attach to a nation holding the central position, and have made themselves masters of the whole of India. So also in Further India they have not confined themselves to a solitary island, but

have extended their influence over the whole of the Southern half of the Malay Peninsula.

A comparison of the South of Europe and the South of Asia is interesting from the point of view of historical geography; but a comparison of the British dependencies in the Mediterranean with those in the East is apt to be misleading. It happens that Great Britain holds in the Mediterranean positions slightly analogous to those which she holds in Southern Asia; but she holds them because they lead to the East and as stations on the road to India and Australasia. If India had not been where it is, or if the English had not gone to the East, it is perhaps more than doubtful whether there would now be any British dependencies in the Mediterranean.

Excluding India, the Asiatic dependencies of Great Britain are Aden with Perim and Socotra, Ceylon and the Maldive Islands, the Colony of the Straits Settlements (including the Cocos-Keeling and Christmas Islands), the Federated Malay States, Johore, Labuan, North Borneo, Brunei, Sarawak, Hong Kong, and Weihaiwei.[1]

These dependencies fall naturally into two classes—those where Great Britain merely possesses the rights and performs the duties which are implied in the vague term 'Protection', and those where she is more directly responsible for the administration.

To the latter category belong Aden and its dependencies, Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, Labuan, Hong Kong, and Weihaiwei.[2]

[1] This list, and any other which might be given, is open to numberless criticisms. With India have been omitted Burma, the islands regarded as belonging to India, e.g. the Laccadives, Nicobars, and Andamans, and the Bahrein protectorate in the Persian Gulf. Aden, with its dependencies, has on the contrary been included, as geographically distinct from, though politically incorporated with, India. Socotra also is included, owing to its connexion with Aden, though it belongs geographically to Africa rather than to Asia.

[2] The Federated Malay States are not included in this list, owing to their anomalous position. Practically, they are governed on much the

The Asiatic dependencies of this class, like those in the Mediterranean, were obtained by conquest or treaty, not by simple settlement; they were all acquired comparatively recently—within the last 120 years; with the exception of Weihaiwei, they are all within the tropics; they are all inhabited by coloured races, with only a sprinkling of white population; and the most important part of each is an island or a peninsula. They have also a further point in common, that in practically every case the possession of an island near the mainland or of a peninsula has meant sooner or later the extension of British influence over the neighbouring or opposite coast. Thus the occupation of Aden has led to an extension of our influence not only on the Arabian coast, but also over the Somali coast across the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb; Hong Kong has absorbed a considerable extent of territory on the mainland of China; the possession of Labuan has resulted in a British protectorate over all that part of Borneo which was not already in Dutch hands; the control by Great Britain of the Southern part of the Malay Peninsula has followed from the existence of the British colony of the Straits Settlements; and, lastly, the leased territory of Weihaiwei includes, in addition to the island of Liukung, a strip of mainland surrounded by a larger area in which Great Britain has been recognized to possess special rights.

The recognition of the prior claims of the Netherlands has prevented the natural expansion of Singapore over the opposite island of Sumatra, but what would probably have happened had it not been for the stipulations of the treaty with Holland is shown by the fact that from 1819 to the date of the Hague Convention[1] of 1871 Great Britain claimed

same lines as a Crown colony, but theoretically they are ruled by their own Sultans and are not part of His Majesty's dominions.

[1] This Convention was part of a general settlement of Colonial affairs between Great Britain and Holland. By another Convention of the same year the Dutch possessions on the Guinea Coast were transferred to Great Britain. See vol. iv of this series, p. 132.

certain rights in the Achin district, which lies directly over against the Straits Settlements.

The case of Weihaiwei is somewhat similar, since the possession by another Power of Port Arthur and the Liaotung peninsula precludes any extension of British influence on the opposite side of the Straits of Pechili, but with these two exceptions—which are only partial, for in both cases, as at Hong Kong, Penang, and Labuan, the shore nearest to the island is in British possession or under British control—the rule holds good throughout the Asiatic part of the empire, that wherever Great Britain has occupied one side of a strait she has also, sometimes of intent, sometimes almost by accident, come to possess a preponderant influence on the other side.[1]

In addition to the European and Asiatic dependencies of Great Britain, three others, which geographically belong to Africa, are included in this volume—Somaliland, Mauritius, and Seychelles.

Somaliland is included on account of its close connexion with Aden and its position on the Red Sea route to India; Mauritius, because historically its importance has been due to its position in relation to India,[2] and because, since the abolition of slavery and the substitution of Indian coolie labour, the Asiatic element of its population has far outnumbered all the others; Seychelles, because the account of that colony cannot be separated from that of Mauritius, of which it was a dependency until early in the present century.

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[1] Ceylon is an instance in which the usual rule was reversed, Great Britain first acquiring the control of the mainland, and then extending her influence to the island.

[2] Before the opening of the Suez Canal the position of Mauritius on the Cape route to India earned for it the name of the Key to the Indian Ocean. The propriety of the title might now be disputed, but the colony still bears as its motto, 'Stella clavisque maris Indici.'

The following table shows the mode and date of acquisition, the area, and the population (at the 1901 census, where a census was taken) of each of the dependencies described in this volume.

Figures marked with an asterisk are estimates.

Name of Dependency.	*How acquired.*	*Date.*	*Area in sq. miles.*	*Population.*
EUROPE.				
Gibraltar	Taken	1704	1⅞	27,460
Malta	Taken	1800	117	207,890
Cyprus	Occupied under Treaty	1878	3,584	237,152
ASIA.				
Aden	Taken	1839	75	43,974
Perim	Occupied	1857	5	
Kuria Muria Islands	Ceded	1854		
Socotra	Protectorate	1886	1,400*	12,000*
Ceylon	Taken	1796	25,481	3,578,333
Maldive Islands	,,	,,	?	30,000*
Straits Settlements:				
Singapore	Ceded	1819[1]	223	228,555
Penang	,,	1786	107	128,830
Province Wellesley	,,	1800	288	115,264
Malacca	,,	1824	659	95,487
Dindings	,,	1874[2]	265	4,113
Cocos-Keeling Islands	Occupied	1857	?	645
Christmas Island	,,	1888	43	704
Federated Malay States:				
Perak	Protectorate	1874	6,500	329,665
Selangor	,,	,,	3,200	168,789
Negri Sembilan	,,	1874–1886[3]	2,600	96,028
Pahang	,,	1888	14,000	84,113
Johore	,,	1885	9,000*	200,000*
Labuan	Ceded	1846	30	8,411
Brunei	Protectorate	1888	4,000*	30,000*
North Borneo	,,	,,	31,000*	120,000*
Sarawak	,,	,,	42,000*	500,000*
Hong Kong	Ceded	1841	329	399,366
Weihaiwei	Leased	1898	285	150,000*

[1] Date of occupation. The island was not formally ceded until 1824.
[2] Part of the Dindings district was ceded in 1826, but not occupied.
[3] The various states of the confederation known as the Negri Sembilan did not all come under British control at the same time. See below, p. 229.

Name of Dependency.	*How acquired.*	*Date.*	*Area in sq. miles.*	*Population.*
AFRICA.				
Somaliland	Protectorate	1884	68,000*	300,000*
Mauritius	Taken	1810	708	373,336
Rodrigues	,,	,,	46*	3,162
Smaller dependencies of Mauritius	,,	,,	64*	1,697
Seychelles	,,	1794	148¼	19,237

Total Area.

Europe	3,702⅞ square miles.
Asia	141,500 square miles.[1]
Africa	68,966¼ square miles.

Total Population.

Europe	472,502
Asia	6,324,277.[1]
Africa	697,432

[1] Exclusive of the territories marked '?' above.

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Section I

THE MEDITERRANEAN DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN

CHAPTER I

GIBRALTAR

History.

Owing to its eventful history, which includes a record of more than a dozen sieges, a certain amount of romance attaches to the possession of Gibraltar apart from its actual value to England. It was long regarded as the ideal fortress of a naval Power, and even in these days of modern long-range guns its position at the gate of the Mediterranean makes it one of the most valuable naval stations in the world.

Known to the Ancients as Calpe, one of the Pillars of Hercules, which bounded the horizon of the Mediterranean, it passed at the beginning of the eighth century A. D. into Moorish hands. In July 710 A. D.[1] a company of Moors crossed the Straits of Gibraltar to Tarifa and Algeçiras; and in the following spring a Moorish force, destined for the conquest of Spain, occupied the Rock, at that time apparently uninhabited, and laid the foundations of the present Moorish castle. The name of their commander was Tarik, and Gibel Tarik, or 'Tarik's hill', has been corrupted into the modern Gibraltar.

In 1309 it was recovered by the Spaniards of Castille, and with a view to attracting a Christian population King

[1] See Gibbon, chap. li.

SECTION I.

Ferdinand IV conferred on the town a number of special privileges, including freedom from all duties on exports or imports and the right of sanctuary for all malefactors, except traitors, residence on the Rock for a year and a day giving a claim to a free pardon. The Spanish occupation was, however, of short duration, for though a siege by the Moors in 1315 met with no success, Gibraltar was eighteen years later compelled to capitulate to Mohammed IV of Granada, and, in spite of numerous attempts at recapture, remained in the possession either of Granada or of Morocco until 1462, when it was recovered for Spain by Alonzo de Arcos. The Duke of Medina Sidonia, who had taken a prominent part in the recapture, lost no time in asserting his claims to the possession of the Rock, and, as King Henry IV of Castille would not grant it to him, profited by the internal dissensions with which Castille was then harassed, to acquire it by force (1467). The king acquiesced in the situation, and in the following year granted the city, fortress, and territory to the Dukes of Medina Sidonia in perpetuity. They had held it for thirty-four years when Ferdinand and Isabella completed their work of consolidating Spain by taking possession of Gibraltar. The reigning duke made an effort to recover it by force but was unsuccessful, and the Rock continued to form part of the dominions of the Spanish crown until 1704. During this period it was made a penal station and the labour of the convicts was used in the construction of extensive fortifications. In 1540 a raid by the corsairs of Algiers almost resulted in its capture, but the attempt was defeated and the repetition of such attacks was made more difficult by a further elaboration of the works of defence. However, the strong fortifications were soon allowed to fall into decay and the defence of the fortress was so neglected that in 1704, during the war of the Spanish succession, it was compelled to surrender after only three days' siege to a combined English and Dutch force under the command of Sir George

Rooke and the Prince of Hesse-Darmstadt. As the allied forces were nominally acting in the interests of the Archduke Charles, the Austrian competitor for the Spanish throne, possession was at first taken in his name, but Sir George Rooke, perceiving the value of the fortress to Great Britain, declined to accept this arrangement and occupied the place in the name of Queen Anne. It was finally ceded to Great Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. CHAPTER I.

The history of the next seventy years is full of the record of attempts on the part of Spain to recover Gibraltar by arms or by diplomacy. More than one British Government, including that of the elder Pitt, seriously contemplated its surrender in return for some such equivalent as Florida or Puerto Rico, but popular feeling was always too strong to prevent any proposal of the kind from being carried into effect.

Of the many attempts to retake the Rock by force, the last and most celebrated was the great siege in 1779–83, when General Eliott [afterwards Lord Heathfield] held it for three years and seven months against a combined French and Spanish force. His fine defence of the fortress seemed to show the uselessness of further attempts to recapture it, and the deep and lasting impression which it left on the minds of the English people precluded the possibility of any further proposals for retrocession.

Gibraltar remains to this day more of a fortress than a civil community. Although in 1830 a certain amount of civil rights was conceded to its inhabitants, the Legislative and Executive power is vested solely in the hands of the Governor; and the Governor is always a general officer, having under his military command a garrison of some 5,000 men. Justice is administered by a Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and by a Police Magistrate. *Administration, &c.*

The only public body in Gibraltar is the Board of Sanitary Commissioners, appointed by the Governor. The War Office, the Admiralty, and the Government of Gibraltar are

SECTION I.

represented on the Board, and it includes also four representatives of the unofficial community. It deals with questions affecting sanitation, public health, food supplies, water, &c., and disposes of a revenue of about £100,000 a year.

So strict is the régime, and so carefully is the military character of the dependency maintained, that aliens are not allowed to enter or remain in the town without a special permit of some kind, and since 1900 these restrictions have been extended to British subjects not previously resident in the colony: the character of the pass given depending on the object of the visit and its intended duration. Where the space available for living is so narrowly confined, there are obvious sanitary as well as military and political reasons for limiting the numbers of the resident population; and the mortality caused by fever and cholera epidemics in past years is a practical justification of stringent measures against overcrowding.

Area and Geography.

Gibraltar is the smallest separately administered dependency of Great Britain, having an area of $1\frac{7}{8}$ square miles. The promontory, which stretches out nearly due South, between the bay of Gibraltar on the West and the Mediterranean on the East, is some $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, with a maximum breadth of $\frac{3}{4}$ mile. It rises at its highest point to over 1,400 feet. The Northern and Eastern sides of the rock are almost inaccessible. The Southern side is also very precipitous, the heights descending abruptly to the Windmill Hill plateau, and thence to the Europa flats, which terminate in the cliff of Europa Point. On the Western side alone is there something of a gradual slope; and here the town lies, stretching from North to South along the bay. It is divided by the Alameda public gardens into the North and South Towns, the former, which is nearer to Spain, containing the main bulk of the buildings.

The promontory of Gibraltar is joined to the mainland

by a sandy isthmus, nowhere more than ten feet above sea-level. The Northern face of the rock rises abruptly from this low ground. The part of this isthmus nearest to the rock, and reached by a causeway along the Western shore, is counted as British territory and known as the 'North Front'. It is the playground of the garrison and residents of Gibraltar, containing the race-course, cricket ground, and an esplanade along the Eastern beach. The garrison rifle-butts are also situated in this quarter. Here also are the cemeteries and slaughter-houses, and the wells from which the town formerly derived a large part of its water supply, the water being pumped up into two tanks within the fortress. These tanks have a capacity of 2,000,000 gallons and are practically always full, but the water is slightly brackish and is now almost solely used for sanitary purposes. Drinking-water is obtained from the rain-water tanks with which each house is provided, and in recent years the supply has been improved by the excavation high up in the rock of large storage tanks with a capacity of over 6,000,000 gallons. The War Department has also established tanks with a storage capacity of 1,000,000 gallons at the upper part of the South end of the rock. Beyond the 'North Front' is the 'Neutral Ground', lying between the British and the Spanish lines.

Fortifications.

The land side of Gibraltar with the North-Western corner towards the bay is commanded by the famous galleries in the cliff. There are two ranges, hewn out of the rock, one above the other, the excavation having been begun at the time of the great siege. As regards the rest of the fortress, batteries have been erected at various points of vantage, and a sea-wall and breakwater protect the face of the town.

Docks.

The importance of Gibraltar as a port and as a naval base has been largely increased in the last few years by the construction, not yet completed, of extensive harbour works on the West side of the peninsula. Three large moles, two

SECTION I.

of which are extensions of former works, enclose a defended harbour with an area of about 440 acres, within which are three docks capable of accommodating battleships and cruisers. The Northern mole also provides accommodation for the merchant shipping frequenting the port.

Climate and Health.

The climate of Gibraltar is subtropical. The sheltered position of the town makes the heat of the summer months more oppressive than would otherwise be the case; and the air, which reaches it from the East, comes too often in the form of the damp, heavy, unhealthy wind, known as the 'Levanter'. The winter is also the rainy season, the average annual rainfall being much the same as in this country, though the amount varies very greatly from year to year.

The station is now a healthy one, in consequence of extensive and costly works of sanitation, carried out in conjunction by the local Sanitary Commissioners, the War Office, and the Admiralty; and, if 'Rock fever' prevails from time to time, the death rate of the population will bear comparison with that of England and Wales. In 1904 it was 16·26 per thousand.

Geology, fauna, flora, &c.

Being of limestone formation, the promontory abounds in natural caves, in which large quantities of fossil remains have been found, including many species of mammals. At present rabbits, foxes, badgers, goats, and a few monkeys are the chief living representatives of mammal life on the Rock. On the other hand, considering the nature of the ground, the flowers, ferns, and shrubs are at once numerous in quantity and varied in kind. In the spring the Rock is covered with narcissus and other wild flowers, and one plant—an Iberis—is peculiar to Gibraltar.

Population.

The population of Gibraltar, excluding the garrison and the crews of vessels in the harbour, amounted to 20,355 at the 1901 census. It is now estimated at a little over 19,000. After the capture by the English the majority of

the Spanish population left the Rock, migrating principally to San Roque on the mainland, and the present inhabitants, though they speak the Spanish language, are mostly descendants of Genoese, who were invited to settle in Gibraltar to take the place of the Spaniards and to supply the labour market. They are mainly Roman Catholics in religion. There is also a considerable number of residents of Jewish and of Maltese descent.

Owing to the limited accommodation and the high value of land, the poorer classes have gradually been leaving the town and settling in Linea del Concepcion across the Spanish border. It is estimated that some 10,000 persons come from Linea to Gibraltar for their daily work.

Trade, finance, &c.

Gibraltar has, of course, no home products to depend upon. Its trade is a transit trade: it is largely used as a port of call and coaling station for vessels plying between the Atlantic and the East, or between European ports and the North-West of Africa. Its revenue and expenditure in 1904 amounted to £87,545 and £64,924 respectively. The revenue is derived mainly from Port dues, Crown rents, and duties on tobacco and alcohol imported for home consumption. There is no Public Debt. British currency has been the only legal tender since 1898, but Spanish money is still freely used.

General résumé.

Considered as a part of the British empire Gibraltar possesses much interest: it is of great value both from the natural strength of its position, and from the fact that it is the Western gate of the Mediterranean and of the road to the East; and it brings Great Britain into direct contact with Spain, and gives her some thousands of Spanish-speaking subjects.[1]

[1] The *Gibraltar Directory*, published at the Garrison Library printing establishment at Gibraltar, gives a very full and interesting account of the dependency. Capt. Sayer's *History of Gibraltar* (London, 1862) gives a good account of the fourteen sieges of the Rock.

SECTION I

CHAPTER II

MALTA

SECTION I.

Its importance due to its position, its harbours, and its fortifications.

THE fortunate position of Malta between the two continents of Europe and Africa, and within easy reach of the Syrian coast of Asia, has made it, from the very earliest times, a place of importance to the races which have successively laid claim to the command of the Mediterranean Sea. In ancient times the manufactures and commerce of the island appear to have raised it to a high degree of prosperity. Under the Byzantine Emperors its commercial greatness declined; but the extent and safety of its natural harbours, and the world-renowned fortifications, begun by the Arabs, continued by the European nations who succeeded them, and completed with all the skill that Europe could afford by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, gave it still greater value as a fortress, by means of which Christianity was successful in opposing the advance of the Turkish power. And now, in modern times, it has become, as a British possession, more important than ever, commanding, as it does, not merely the Mediterranean, but what is perhaps the greatest highway of the world.

Historical interest of the Maltese people.

But, besides being in one sense one of the most valuable, it is also historically one of the most interesting, of the British possessions. It is not, like Gibraltar, little more than a fortress: it is inhabited by a people who have a long and eventful history, who enjoyed in past ages a considerable measure of self-government, and whose aspirations, in so far as they are not incompatible with imperial interests, are recognized by the British Government as entitled to be met.

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CHAPTER II.

It is usual to speak of Malta as if it were only one island: but there are really two principal islands, Malta and Gozo, and three smaller ones.[1] The area of Gozo is only $24\frac{3}{4}$ square miles. Malta is $17\frac{1}{4}$ miles long and about 9 miles broad, and it has an area of $91\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, being thus not quite two-thirds of the size of the Isle of Wight.[2] The area of the whole group is about 117 square miles.

Area of the Maltese islands.

It is an old question whether Malta should be regarded as belonging to Europe or to Africa. It is 60 miles from the nearest point in Sicily, and about 200 from the nearest in Africa. The palms, and other subtropical plants which flourish there, seem to assign it to Africa; but in its fauna, including the Maltese dog, which is mentioned by ancient writers and still survives, it is more like Europe. The matter has been settled as regards the service of British soldiers by an Act of Parliament declaring it to be in Europe. But geographically, at any rate, it lies between the two continents: and it is owing to this fact, and to its being also roughly halfway between Gibraltar on the West and Egypt on the East, that so many different nations have occupied it in turn. Phœnicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Byzantine Greeks, Arabs, Normans, Germans, Angevins, Spaniards, French, and English, have held it in succession, not to mention the Knights of St. John, whose numbers were recruited from all the chief peoples of Europe.

Whether they belong to Europe or to Africa.

The earliest known navigators of the Mediterranean were the Phœnicians. Starting from Tyre and Sidon on the coast of Syria, they acquired the command of the sea as far as Gades (Cadiz), which they founded, perhaps nearly 1,000 years before Christ, beyond the Pillars of Hercules. Utica, the most ancient of their colonies upon the coast of Africa,

Phœnicians.

[1] Of these the only one of any importance is Comino, on which a sanitary station has been established. It lies in the channel between Malta and Gozo. The others are Cominotto and Filfola, both uninhabited.

[2] The area of the Isle of Wight is about 145 square miles.

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was not far from Malta; and several inscriptions and images, and many specimens of pottery and glass, remain to this day as evidences of a Phœnician occupation of the Maltese group. There are also in Malta and Gozo many sepulchral caves and tombs cut in the rocks, besides the ruins of no less than three most remarkable buildings formed of gigantic stones, some of which are attributed, apparently with good reason, to the Phœnicians.

Greeks.

In 735 B.C. the first Greek [1] colony was founded in Sicily, and a long struggle began between Greeks and Phœnicians for supremacy in the Mediterranean. During this time Malta probably followed, as it did in after years, the fortunes of Sicily.[2] From an inscription on a tessera in bronze attributed to the fifth century B.C., which is now preserved at Naples,[3] it appears that the Government of Malta at that time was formed on the pattern of a Greek republic.

Carthaginians.

Subsequently, when the power of Carthage was at its height, Malta was occupied by the Carthaginians, in whose possession it was at the commencement of the First Punic War. During the war (264–241 B.C.) Malta appears to have been more than once taken by the Romans and recovered by the Carthaginians. At the conclusion of the war, it remained with the Carthaginians; but during the Second Punic War it was taken by the Romans in 218 B.C.[4]

Romans.

Under the Romans, Malta appears to have maintained its prosperity, at least down to the Augustan age. Diodorus Siculus,[5] who lived in the time of Julius Caesar and Augustus, speaks of the excellence of its harbours, of the beauty of its houses and the wealth of the inhabitants, and of the many skilful artificers which the island produced.

[1] Naxos from Chalcis was founded in 735, and Syracuse from Corinth in 734 B.C.: these were soon succeeded by others.

[2] Professor Freeman (*Histor. Geog. of Europe*) speaks of Malta as 'the natural appendage of Sicily'.

[3] Dr. A. A. Caruana, *Report on Antiquities of Malta*, 1882.

[4] Livy xxi. 51.

[5] *Bibliotheca Historica*, v. 12.

Cicero[1] refers to Malta as abounding in curiosities and riches, and as famous for the manufacture of textile fabrics, and Ovid speaks of it as a fertile island.[2] The remains of more than one fine temple of the Roman period, and of other buildings, existed until a few years ago; and the foundations of a mole and important harbour works have been discovered which bear the marks of Roman handiwork. Inscriptions show that the island enjoyed municipal rights in the time of Hadrian.

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St. Paul's shipwreck.

It was during the Roman occupation of Malta that, in 62 A.D., the shipwreck of St. Paul occurred. Much ingenuity has been perversely exercised in the attempt—based mainly on the statement that they 'were driven up and down in Adria'—to prove that the island on which St. Paul and his companions were wrecked was Meleda, off the Illyrian coast, in what is now known as the Adriatic Sea. But the name of Adria was unquestionably applied in those days, not merely to the Venetian Gulf, but to the whole of the sea between Italy, Greece, and Africa; and the result of the controversy has been to prove that the island could only have been Malta, and to confirm the tradition, which has existed from time immemorial in Malta, that the wreck took place in St. Paul's Bay, on the North-Western coast of the island.

Introduction of Christianity.

Tradition also asserts that the Maltese have always professed Christianity since it was first preached there by St. Paul, though it is clear that the old religion continued to exist side by side with the new, since Ptolemy mentions the famous temples of Hercules and Juno as still flourishing at the end of the second century A.D. Many Christian monograms and inscriptions have been found, ranging from the second to the ninth century.

Byzantines.

On the final division of the Empire in 395 A.D., Malta fell to the Eastern, or Byzantine, Emperor, and during the next 500 years its history is almost a blank. It is uncertain

[1] *In Verrem*, iv. 18 and 46.

[2] *Fasti*, iii. 567.

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whether it was ever occupied by the Vandals who took Sicily in 454 A.D., or by the Goths who followed them there ten years afterwards. At any rate, neither people left any traces of their occupation. Belisarius, the great Byzantine general, who reconquered Carthage from the Vandals in 533–4 A.D. and Sicily from the Goths in 535 A.D., is said to have landed in Malta during one of these expeditions; and a Byzantine garrison is mentioned as still holding the island in 870 A.D. But the period of its commercial prosperity was at an end, and that of its importance as a fortress had not yet begun.

Arabs.

Meanwhile, the appearance of Mohammed in Arabia was the commencement of a revolution in the old order of things, which soon extended to the Mediterranean. Mohammed died in 632 A.D.; and between 647 and 698 A.D. his disciples had won their way along the coast of Africa as far as the Pillars of Hercules. It was not, however, until 828 A.D., more than 100 years after Gibraltar had become a Moorish stronghold, that the Arabs first attacked Malta. Another attack was made in 836 A.D., when Gozo suffered more especially; but this, like the first, was repulsed. In 870 A.D., however, the Maltese themselves massacred the Byzantine garrison, and delivered up the island to the Arabs, who held it for 220 years.

Very little is known of the condition of Malta under the Arabs. They appear to have used it mainly as a base for piratical expeditions. But two noteworthy memorials of their occupation remain. The name of Melita was corrupted by them into Malta: and the mass of the people still, though more than 1,000 years have elapsed, speak no other language than that which was in the main acquired from their Arab masters.[1] It is remarkable, however, that, although the Maltese adopted the language of their conquerors, they did

[1] This statement is not beyond dispute. The view that the Maltese language is largely of Phœnician or Carthaginian origin finds considerable support.

not adopt their religion. There is a break in the line of bishops during the Arab dominion, but, when Count Roger de Hauteville, the brother of Robert Guiscard, after the Norman conquest of Sicily, proceeded about 1090 A.D. to attack the Arabs in Malta, he was received with joy by the native inhabitants, some of whom, if not all, were certainly Christians.

Norman conquest of Malta.

The conquest of Malta by the Normans forms an epoch in its history, not less important to the Maltese than the Norman Conquest of England was to the English. Malta then, for the first time, came under the influence of a Teutonic race: the feudal laws and administration were introduced: the succession of Christian bishops was restored: tithes and other endowments were granted to the Church: and the first establishment of the 'Consiglio Popolare', or National Council, although apparently not in the form which it afterwards assumed, has also been attributed to this date.

Malta under the German Emperors:

In 1194 A.D., owing to the marriage of Constance the heiress of the kingdom of Sicily with the Emperor Henry VI of Germany (son of the famous Frederick Barbarossa), Malta came, as a fief of Sicily, under the authority of the Emperors, and was granted by them to feudal lords who exercised uncontrolled authority over the inhabitants.

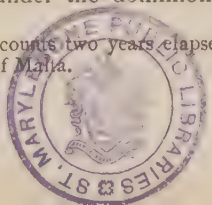
under the Angevin kings of Sicily:

In 1266 A.D., when Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX of France, became master of Sicily, Malta also passed under his authority. The Maltese appear not to have taken any part in the 'Sicilian Vespers' in 1282 A.D., when the Sicilians rose against Charles and massacred the French garrison, but to have held out for Charles until Peter of Aragon, to whom the throne of Sicily was transferred, sent his fleet against Malta and captured it, although gallantly defended by an Englishman named Corner.[1]

under the kings of

Malta thus came under the dominion of Spanish rulers,

[1] According to some accounts two years elapsed between the Sicilian Vespers and the capture of Malta.



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and was held for nearly two and a half centuries, first by the Aragonese kings who reigned in Sicily, and later by the main branch in Aragon. During this time the Maltese seem to have enjoyed a considerable measure of self-government. At first it appears that the islands were frequently held as fiefs by Spanish or Sicilian nobles, and more than once they were given as an appanage to a prince of the royal house, but in 1350 King Louis undertook that they should not in future be alienated from the Sicilian crown. This promise, renewed by Louis's successors, was not kept, and the islands were more than once granted in perpetuity to foreign counts or marquesses. Finally, however, in 1428, after the Maltese had for the second time bought back the rights which had been granted away, King Alphonso gave a solemn promise that Malta and Gozo should never again be sundered from the royal dominions, and authorized the Maltese to oppose any cession by force.[1]

When the Maltese enjoyed their full privileges, the chief executive officer was the 'Capitano di Verga', selected by the king out of three persons, chosen by the 'Consiglio Popolare', and liable to dismissal on complaint by the Council.[2] It would seem that, although the Maltese were few[3] in number, they were fairly prosperous during this period. If they were exposed to frequent attacks from the Moors, on the other hand they often successfully retaliated upon them on the mainland of Africa. The liberal constitution under which they lived fostered in them the spirit of liberty and self-reliance; and, however obscure their country may have been in the eyes of the world, they look back upon this period, when they were practically independent, with far more satisfaction than they can upon the succeeding period,

[1] *Eton*, p. 110.

[2] Gozo had a separate constitution of its own on the same lines as that of Malta.

[3] In 1514 A.D. Malta and Gozo together are said to have contained only 22,000 inhabitants.

when they suffered under the splendid rule of the Knights of St. John. CHAPTER II.

under the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem.

The Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem[1] was founded at Jerusalem in 1023 A.D. for the reception of the crowds of pilgrims who came to visit the Holy Sepulchre. About a century later the Hospitaller Brothers were made a military order. The mission of the Knights was to defend the Holy Sepulchre and to combat the 'infidels' wherever they might meet them: and, as their badge, they took the white cross on a black ground, which is now known as the Maltese Cross. So long as any part of the territories won by the earlier Crusades remained in the hands of the Franks, the Knights of St. John were among the bravest of the soldiers of the Cross. In 1291 the fall of Acre, their headquarters and the last stronghold of the Franks in Palestine, compelled them to seek a new home. For a few years they enjoyed the hospitality of the King of Cyprus in Limassol,[2] but they soon aspired to found an independent State. Their choice fell on Rhodes, and with the approbation of the Pope they directed against the Greeks the forces which they had levied on the pretext of a new Crusade (1308). At the same time, with the arrogance which characterized the military orders, they sent an embassy to the Emperor Andronicus, demanding the surrender of the island, and promising in return to place a contingent of 300 cavalry at his disposal. Andronicus, naturally loth to lose so valuable a possession, rejected the demand, and sent a force to raise the siege. This force was defeated, and the Knights entered into possession of Rhodes and the surrounding islands, together with the city of Halicarnassus on the mainland. From their new settlement they

[1] It appears that the first patron saint of the Order was neither the Evangelist nor the Baptist, but the Cypriot, surnamed the Charitable, who was Patriarch of Alexandria in the seventh century. Later, the Knights transferred their allegiance to the Baptist. See Gibbon, chap. lviii.

[2] See p. 51.

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carried on incessant war against the Mohammedans—a war which often degenerated into mere piracy, but which was also marked by great exploits, such as the sack of Satalia (1361), the capture of Alexandria (1365), and the seizure of Smyrna (1344), which they held for nearly sixty years. The mischief which they did excited the anger of the Mohammedans, and the Knights had more than once to endure a siege, but they made good their possession of Rhodes for over two centuries, until Solyman the Magnificent led an overwhelming force against them in 1522. No help came from Europe, but still the Order maintained a gallant resistance for four months, and then surrendered on honourable terms[1] and retired to Crete, then in the possession of the Venetians. A few years later the Emperor Charles V, who as King of Aragon was King of Sicily and Suzerain of Malta, granted them the islands of Malta and Gozo and the city of Tripoli, to be held by them, subject only to their presenting a falcon annually to the King of Sicily.

Under the Grand Mastership of Villers de l'Isle-Adam, the hero of the siege of Rhodes, the Knights took possession of their new dominions in 1530. Tripoli was soon lost, but Malta and Gozo were held by the Order for 268 years. No period of Maltese history has been more widely celebrated. Histories of Malta are mostly histories of the Knights, whose gallant deeds and lavish expenditure in fortifying and adorning the island were such as could not fail to produce a brilliant effect upon the popular imagination. Immediately on their arrival they began to strengthen the fortifications; and in 1565 they sustained the famous siege, when the Grand Master, La Vallette, successfully opposed the apparently overwhelming force which Solyman the Magnificent sent against them.

When the Turks retired, La Vallette proceeded in 1566

[1] 'Nothing in the world has been so well lost as Rhodes' was the verdict of Charles V.

to found the new city which, on his death, was called after him Valletta. Contributions towards the building were received from the chief princes of Europe in recognition of the services which the Knights had rendered to Christendom. But the Knights had also a large income of their own, derived from their estates throughout Europe, by means of which successive Grand Masters were able to strengthen and add to the fortifications, until they had made them the strongest and the most renowned in the world. They also made good roads: built and kept up hospitals: raised in 1614 the great aqueduct, called after the Grand Master Vignacourt, which is still used to bring water to Valletta: and carried out many other public works, which all served to enhance the glory of their rule.

But in the midst of all this splendour the interests of the Maltese people suffered. The effect of the grant which Charles V made to the Knights was that the Order occupied in perpetuity the position previously held by the Capitano di Verga. The grant itself was obviously a breach of the often-repeated pledge that the islands should not be alienated from the Sicilian crown, and the Maltese at first strongly protested. They were, however, reconciled to the situation by the consideration of the increase of strength which they would derive from the presence of the Knights and the prospects of the plunder which, under their command, they would win from the Moslems, and by promises that their liberties should in no way be interfered with, that each Grand Master should swear to observe their rights, that the Knights should acquire no landed property in the island, and, finally, that if the Order ever left Malta, it should revert to the King of Sicily as before.

But in losing the right practically to nominate and to control the Capitano di Verga, the Maltese had parted with the main safeguard of their liberties, and the Knights did not long respect their pledges. Gradual encroachments

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deprived the people of their privileges, a representative who dared to remonstrate was hanged, and by degrees the 'Consiglio Popolare' was filled with nominees of the Grand Master. Finally, in 1775, it was abolished.

In the same year an insurrection occurred, known as the 'Rebellion of the Priests', when the Maltese were successful in capturing fort St. Elmo; and, although order was soon restored, the misgovernment and oppression from which the Maltese had suffered were to some extent mitigated by the reforms granted by the Grand Master de Rohan.

But the career of the Order was nearly at an end. The mission of the Knights of St. John was over, since Christendom no longer needed their protection, and they were rapidly degenerating. As has been said already, many of their exploits at Rhodes had in them more of piracy than of war, and after they had established themselves firmly in Malta, the Knights tended more and more to become mere corsairs and slave-raiders. In their incursions upon the coast of Greece, the Christian subjects of the Sultan suffered fully as much as the Mohammedans, and numbers of kidnapped Greeks toiled at the oar in the galleys of Malta. Even the property of Christian states was not always safe from the depredations of the Order. In 1575 the Knights seized a Venetian ship and, on the ground that the owners were Jews and could not be regarded as Venetian subjects, the Grand Master refused to restore the stolen cargo, until compelled to do so by the sequestration of all the property of the Order in Venetian territory. A like dispute arose with Spain in 1638, the French Knights having plundered Spanish and Sicilian ships, Spain being then at war with France, and more than one similar incident is recorded.

By the end of the eighteenth century the Order had become an anachronism; and membership of it, instead of being thought of as a religious vocation, was regarded merely as an honourable and lucrative profession for the younger sons of

noble families. A final blow was dealt by the French Revolution, which led to the loss of the property of the Order, first in France and then in the countries which came under French influence,[1] so that by 1797 the revenues, which had amounted to over half a million sterling, had fallen to some £40,000. The following year saw the end of the rule of the Knights in Malta. Bonaparte, on his way to Egypt, put in at the island, and the Knights, many of whom, being French, were in sympathy with the Republican forces, surrendered their strong fortresses almost without an effort to defend them. The Order was now expelled from the island, and Bonaparte, leaving behind a garrison under the command of General Vaubois, resumed his voyage to Egypt.

Capture of Malta by the French.

Within three months of his departure, the Maltese, who felt that they had been betrayed by the Knights, rose against the French garrison, as centuries before they had risen against their Byzantine rulers, and compelled them to shut themselves up in Valletta. For two years, with the assistance of the British and Portuguese fleets, and during the latter part of the time with the aid of British and Neapolitan troops, the French garrison was kept closely blockaded. Finally, in September, 1800, it was compelled to capitulate to the British forces.

Expulsion of the French garrison.

Sir Alexander Ball immediately assumed the administration of the Government, and from that time forward the islands have been governed as a British possession.

Malta becomes a British possession.

The Treaty of Amiens, signed in March, 1802, provided that the islands should be restored to the Knights of Malta—

[1] The English estates, which had been very valuable, were confiscated by Henry VIII. As Great Britain has succeeded to the dominions of the Knights in Malta, it is interesting to notice that in earlier times the connexion of the Order with England was one of close friendship, and the Turcopolier, or commander of the light troops of the Order, was always an Englishman. England was one of the seven 'langues' or nations into which the Order was divided in the fourteenth century, the others being France, Provence, Auvergne, Italy, Germany, and Aragon. In the eighteenth century a new 'langue,' the Anglo-Bavarian, took the place of the English.

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a stipulation against which the inhabitants hotly protested, declaring their determination to support their objections by force. In June Sir Alexander Ball was appointed H.M.'s Minister Plenipotentiary to superintend the withdrawal of the British forces, but it soon became apparent that the peace was only temporary, and in October he was informed that H.M.'s Government had determined to suspend the evacuation. Throughout the war, which broke out in the following year, Malta remained in British hands, and finally the Treaty of Paris, in 1814, confirmed the title of Great Britain to the islands.

The joy with which that decision was received in the island is recorded in the following inscription, placed in the principal square of Valletta, where it may still be read :—

MAGNAE ET INVICTAE BRITANNIAE
MELITENSIUM AMOR ET EUROPAE VOX
HAS INSULAS CONFIRMANT
A.D. MDCCCXIV.

Changes in the Constitution of Malta under British rule.

Even before this date the popular leaders of the Maltese had begun to press for the re-establishment of the 'Consiglio Popolare'. Mr. (afterwards Sir Charles) Cameron, who was sent out from England in 1801 as Civil Commissioner to administer the Government, had issued a proclamation stating that the King granted to the Maltese people full protection and the enjoyment of all their dearest rights, and that he would protect their churches, their holy religion, their persons, and their property. This, however, did not satisfy the Maltese ; and from that time to this the main problem which has faced the British Government in connexion with Malta has been how to meet the wishes of the people, while at the same time ensuring the security of the fortress and the Imperial interests connected with it.

In 1836 Mr. John Austin, the well-known writer on jurisprudence, and Mr. (afterwards Sir) George Cornewall Lewis,

were sent out as Royal Commissioners to inquire into the condition of the islands. The main results of their recommendations were that the censorship of the press was abolished, the tariff was revised, the charitable institutions and the system of primary education were reorganized, and the procedure of the law courts was simplified.

In 1847 the experiment was made of appointing a civilian and Roman Catholic to be Governor of Malta. In the early years of the British occupation the civil administration had usually been kept distinct from the command of the troops; but latterly it had become the rule for the Commander-in-Chief of the garrison to be also Governor, an arrangement which was resented by the Maltese, on the ground that to put a military man at the head of the administration was to treat them as a conquered people. The Right Hon. R. More O'Ferrall was accordingly appointed, and was received in Malta with the greatest enthusiasm. During his administration, and while Lord Grey was at the Colonial Office, Letters Patent were issued in 1849 providing that the 'Council of Government' (or local legislature) should consist of the Governor, nine official members, and eight members (seven for Malta and one for Gozo) elected by persons qualified to serve as jurors. The electorate numbered about 2,000.

In the Council thus constituted the Government could of course always command a majority. But the publicity which was given to the acts of the Government was indirectly beneficial to the people; and during the administration of Mr. O'Ferrall's successor, Sir W. Reid, who although a military officer, was appointed only to the civil administration, the official majority was so seldom used that the restraint was scarcely felt. It was at this time that the Crimean War took place: and in the spring of 1854 large numbers of troops were stationed in the island before being sent on to the seat of war.

The next Governor, Lt.-Gen. Sir Gaspard Le Marchant,

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again united the chief civil and military duties in his own person, and they have not since been separated. His administration was distinguished by the number of great public works which were carried out under his direction. Many of them were works of great utility to the island, but the constant use of the official majority in the Council to obtain the necessary votes of money led to a renewal of the agitation for the reform of the Constitution.

In 1864 Mr. (afterwards Viscount) Cardwell, who was then Secretary of State for the Colonies, gave instructions[1] to the Governor that great consideration should be shown to the opinions of the elected members of Council in matters of local and domestic interest, and that above all no vote of money should be pressed against the majority of the elected members, except in very special circumstances in which the public interests or credit were seriously at stake, and never without an immediate report to the Secretary of State.

This, however, did not settle the matter: for the want of any clear definition of those local questions, in respect of which the wishes of the local representatives were to prevail, afforded opportunities for endless disputes.

Constitution of 1887.

Accordingly, in 1887, a new Constitution was granted by Letters Patent, under which full power was, as before, reserved to the Crown to legislate on any question, but such power was to be exercised, not indirectly by the use of the official majority, but by a direct use of the prerogative. The Council of Government, i.e. the Legislative Council, was to consist of the Governor, six official, and fourteen elected, members. Of the elected members, ten[2] were to be elected by the 'general' electors, and four by 'special' electors with a high qualification. Of those elected by the special electors, one was to be an ecclesiastical person, one

[1] In a despatch dated the 19th of Sept., 1864.

[2] A Royal Commission in 1888 divided Malta into nine electoral districts, each returning one representative. The tenth elected member represented Gozo and Comino.

a noble or possessed of £150 a year from immovable property in Malta, one a graduate of the University, and one a member of the Chamber of Commerce. Votes of money were to be determined by the elected members alone. CHAPTER II.

A Vice-President was added in 1893 and the ecclesiastical representative was abolished five years later, but otherwise the constitution of the Council remained practically unaltered until 1903. The result, however, of the system of giving popular control without responsibility was by no means satisfactory, and it was frequently found necessary to make use of the power of legislating by Order of Council, owing to the refusal of the elected members to vote supplies, without which the business of Government could not be carried on. The arrangement made in 1887 finally broke down in consequence of a difference of opinion between the Government and the elected representatives on the Government policy of placing the English language on a par with the Italian in the schools and Courts of Justice. Accordingly, after the elected members had repeatedly declined to vote the money required for the services of the Education Department, new Letters Patent were issued in June, 1903, increasing the number of official members of Council to ten, exclusive of the Governor and the Vice-President, and reducing the number of elected representatives to eight—seven for Malta and one for Gozo and Comino. The change was not favourably regarded by the Maltese, or rather by the small section of the people who take any part in political affairs, and up to the present time no elected members have taken any share in the Government; either there have been no candidates at the elections or the persons elected have resigned their seats at once. Practically, therefore, the island is at present governed as a pure Crown colony. *Present Constitution.*

The Government is administered by the Governor, assisted by an Executive Council. Under the Constitution of 1887 this Council consisted of certain official members and of *Executive Government.*

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not less than three salaried unofficial members taken from the elected members of the Council of Government. It is now composed of twelve officials, including the Governor. All appointments in the Civil Service, except those of Chief Secretary and Assistant Secretary, are held by natives of Malta.

Administration of Justice.

The Maltese live under their own native laws, and justice is administered by a Superior Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and five Puisne Judges, and by Magistrates of Judicial Police. The Chief Justice and the other Judges, as well as the Magistrates, are all Maltese.

Finances.

Malta has no Public Debt, and the Maltese pay no direct taxes of any kind. The most important sources of revenue are the Customs duties; and the largest amount is derived from the duty of 10*s.* a quarter on wheat. The revenue from every source amounted in the financial year 1904–5 to £467,835. It has increased by nearly one-third in the last five years.

Natural features.

The area of the islands composing the Maltese group has been already stated to be about 117 square miles. Geologically, they belong to the late Eocene period. [1]They consist almost entirely of porous rocks only thinly and partially covered by vegetable soil, which vary in character from a very porous calcareous sandstone to a compact crystalline limestone often abounding in fossils, and are divided into two series by an intervening bed of marl. The surface is made up of valleys and steep hills, the sides of which are seamed by water-courses made during the heavy rains. Owing to the porous nature of the rocks, there are no rivers, brooks, or lakes; but springs are thrown out along the upper edge of the marl, where it is exposed on the sides of the hills. On the West and South the coast consists of sheer cliffs. On the North the land slopes more gradually to the

[1] Report by Mr. J. F. Bateman, C.E., May 11, 1867.

sea, except in the neighbourhood of Valletta. There are no mountains, and the loftiest hills are only 1,200 feet high.

General appearance.

The general appearance of the country is bare and far from pleasing: there are few trees other than fruit trees in the island; and, in order to protect the crops from the violence of the 'gregale' or North-East wind, the fields are made so small, and surrounded by such high walls, that the island looks more like a huge stone quarry than the closely cultivated country which it really is. The soil is thin, and in many places it would be washed away altogether by the winter rains if the sides of the hills were not terraced; but it is very fertile and highly cultivated.[1] Corn, early potatoes, and various fruits, especially oranges and figs, are among the chief vegetable products, while the cultivation of the vine is steadily increasing. A large amount of cotton was formerly produced, and at the beginning of last century the yearly crop was valued at about half a million sterling. The amount now grown is small. From the honey, which now comes principally from Gozo, it is supposed that the Greek name of Melita was derived. Goats, mules, and asses are the principal live-stock. Lace-making, which is more especially carried on in Gozo, maintains the traditional reputation of the islands for textile goods.[2]

Products.

Climate and Health.

The climate of Malta, although not actually tropical, is very hot in summer; in winter it is temperate and healthy.[3] Rain falls with tropical violence in the winter months; but in the summer there is not a cloud to be seen, and the effect of the heat is aggravated in Valletta by the radiation from the surrounding rocks. In the spring and autumn there are occasional showers. The annual rainfall averages from

[1] In 1901 there were 13,889 persons engaged in agriculture. Malta is a land of small proprietors. In 1901 there were over 9,000 separate holdings, the average extent of which was $4\frac{1}{2}$ acres.

[2] In 1901 there were 5,497 women and girls, nearly all in Gozo, employed in lace-making.

[3] The death-rate in the year ending on March 31, 1905, was 25·40 per 1,000.

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19 to 20 inches. The most important factor in the climate is the direction of the wind. The North-East wind, known as the 'gregale' (the Euroclydon of the account of St. Paul's shipwreck), sometimes lasts for two or three days together in the winter, and, as it blows directly into the Grand Harbour, it often does much damage to the shipping; but it is not unhealthy. The North-West and South-East winds are the most prevalent. The South-East wind, or Sirocco, blows from the Sahara in August and September. It is warm, damp, and unhealthy; and sometimes lasts for two or three days at a time. The principal disease in the islands is the Mediterranean or Malta fever, of which over a thousand cases occurred in 1904–5. Investigations have recently been made by a Joint Commission representing the Army, the Navy, the Government of Malta, and the Royal Society, and it is hoped that, as a result, means may be found of successfully combating the disease.

Population.

Nothing is known as to the origin of the early inhabitants of Malta. It is inferred, from the extensive trade then carried on, that in the times of the Phoenicians and Carthaginians the islands were thickly inhabited; but it was not until comparatively modern times that any attempts were made to give the actual number of the population. It is stated that in 1530 A.D., when the Knights took possession, the number was 15,000; that in 1569, after the memorable siege, it had fallen to 10,000; and that in 1798, when the French expelled the Knights, it had mounted up to 114,000. At the Census taken in 1901 the population of the islands was found to be 184,742 exclusive of the Imperial troops and their families, which numbered 10,882.[1]

Attempts have been made from time to time to relieve the over-population[2] by means of emigration; but the Maltese

[1] On the 1st of April, 1905, the total resident population was estimated at over 202,000.

[2] At the last census there were in Malta 1,926, and in Gozo 775,

are devoted to their country, and few can be persuaded permanently to settle elsewhere. There are, however, many Maltese residing in the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. The returns are necessarily incomplete; but it is estimated that there were at the time of the last census about 14,000 Maltese in Tunis, 4500 in Algiers, 2000 in Egypt, about 600 in Gibraltar, about 1600 in Greece, and the same number in Turkey.

Race. In race and character the lower orders appear to be mainly Arabic, but they have a strong admixture of Italian or Sicilian blood. They are a frugal and industrious people, living almost entirely on vegetable food. In the upper classes the Latin strain is still stronger; and the three great Latin countries, France, Italy, and Spain, have all contributed to it. The majority of the people use the Maltese language.[1]

Maltese nobles. There is an order of nobility in Malta which is said to date from the time of Count Roger the Norman. Most of the hereditary titles now extant were granted by the Grand Masters; but there are some of earlier date, and one which dates from the fourteenth century. The 'Titolati,' as they are called, now number twenty-eight families, the heads of which bear titles, which have been recognized by the British Crown, and which serve as a living reminder that the island had a long and honourable history before it was occupied by Great Britain.

Religion. The Maltese are Roman Catholics in religion. There is a Bishop of Malta, who is also Archbishop of Rhodes, and a Bishop of Gozo.

Education. Primary education is carried on mainly in Government schools. There is also a public lyceum or secondary school, with about 500 pupils, and a university (founded in 1769). The primary schools are free, and in the other institutions

persons to the square mile, as against 558 to the square mile in England and Wales.

[1] See above, p. 20.

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the fees are extremely low. In addition to Maltese, English and Italian are taught in the schools, parents being allowed to choose which language shall be taught to their children. Reference has already been made to the political difficulties caused by the decision to place English on a footing of equality with Italian in the schools. At present, in spite of the agitation to the contrary, the great majority of parents (nearly ninety-four per cent. in 1904–5) give the preference to English.

Towns:— Citta Vecchia or Notabile.

The former capital of Malta, now called Citta Vecchia, or Notabile, is situated in the centre of the island about seven and a half miles from Valletta, with which it is connected by a railway. Many of the Maltese gentry still live there, and it contained in 1901, with its suburbs, 9067 inhabitants. Its Roman name was Civitas Melita: the Arabs called it Medina ('the Great City'): and it acquired the name of Citta Vecchia ('the Old City') when Valletta was founded.

Valletta.

Valletta, which lies on the North-East coast, is now the chief town of Malta. It was begun, as already mentioned, by the Grand Master La Vallette, after the repulse of the Turks in 1565.

The Harbour.

Its double harbour, which looks towards Europe, is one of the finest natural harbours in the world, deep, commodious, and completely sheltered except from the North-East; when the wind blows heavily from that quarter it is difficult and dangerous for small boats. The coast is broken by a large bay, bisected by a well-defined and compact promontory on which the town is placed. At the extreme point of the promontory is the fort of St. Elmo, which, with fort Ricasoli on the opposite shore, guards the entrance to the Grand Harbour. Behind the fort stands the city of Valletta, and on the land side behind Valletta is the suburb of Floriana. The Eastern or Grand Harbour is about a quarter of a mile wide at its mouth, and runs inland for about two miles. Its Eastern shore is deeply indented. Here are 'the Three Cities', as they

are called, of Cospicua, Vittoriosa, and Senglea; and the naval arsenal and the head-quarters of the Mediterranean fleet. The Marsamuscetto, or Western Harbour, on the other side of the promontory on which Valletta stands, has not such a jagged outline as that of the Grand Harbour. It is mainly formed by one semicircular bay, in the midst of which is the Lazaretto Island. The width of its entrance is nearly the same as that of the Grand Harbour, and its length is slightly less.

The Grand Harbour of Valletta is the centre of the life of the island and almost the whole of the population lives within a radius of six miles from it. The Census returns for 1901 divided the island into three parts; the Urban area, including Valetta, Floriana, and the Three Cities; the Suburban area, comprising the districts around those towns; and the Rural area, consisting of the rest of the island. Out of a total population of 164,952[1], it was found that no less than 109,348 resided within the Urban and Suburban areas, which together were a little under sixteen square miles in extent, while the Rural area of nearly fifty-six square miles contained only 55,604 inhabitants.

General Summary.

Malta, which lies about 980 miles from Gibraltar, nearly 1000 from Cyprus, and about 940 from Port Said, is the most central of the Mediterranean ports, and the point at which the possessions of Great Britain and Italy are brought most nearly into contact. But its importance is not bounded by the limits of the Mediterranean. It is a port of call for the shipping engaged in the enormous trade which passes, by the Suez Canal, between the United Kingdom and the great British dependencies in Australasia and the East.[2] On this

[1] This was the civil population of the island of Malta alone. That of Gozo was 19,790.

[2] The tonnage of the shipping entered and cleared in 1904–5 was 7,417,745, and the value of the cargoes carried on in the same bottoms in which they arrived, or landed and re-exported, was estimated at nearly £8,500,000.

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passing trade the prosperity of the people of Malta mainly depends; and to Great Britain the possession of the island is of vital importance, both for the protection of her commerce, and as the head-quarters of the Mediterranean fleet.

BOOKS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO MALTA.

In addition to official publications, Parliamentary papers, &c., the following books may be mentioned:—

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British Colonial Library. Vol. vii. R. M. MARTIN. 1837.

History of the Knights of Malta. MAJOR W. PORTER, R.E. London, 1858.

Malta, Past and Present. H. SEDDALL. London, 1870.

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CYPRUS
ENGLISH MILES
0 5 10 20 30
Ancient names in brackets
Railways
Longitude East 33° from Greenwich
Cape Andreas (Dinaretum)
Rhonnas B.
Rizokarpaso
C. Plakoti
Yialousa
Ayios Theodoros
Cape Elaea
Akanthou
FAMAGUSTA BAY
(Salamis)
FAMAGUSTA
Varoshia
Avia Napa
Cape Greco
C. Fyla
LARNACA BAY
LARNACA (Citium)
Cape Kili
Zygi
C. Dolos
LIMASSOL
AKROTIRI BAY
C. Gata
EPISKOPI BAY
Zevgari
C. Aspro
Kouklia (Palaea Paphos)
Paphos (Paphos)
Kuma
Kelokethara
Pissouri
Episkopi
Evdhimou
Polymedia
(Amathus)
Lefkara
Kophinia
Lefkoniko
Kythræa
Pedias
Asha
Vatili
NICOSIA
Morphou
Peristerona
Lefka
(Soli)
Pyrgo
Yalia
Pomos Point
C. Arnauli (Acamas)
KHRYSOKHOU BAY
Polis
Khrysokhou
Phyti
Chakistra
Tridodos
Pakeokhorio
Dali (Idalium)
Athienou
Kormakiti
Yeorgios Bay
KYRENIA
MORPHOU BAY
C. Kormakiti (Crommyon)
C. Depranion
C. Arnauli (Acamas)
KYRENIA
NICOSIA
LARNACA
LIMASSOL
PAPHO
FAMAGUSTA
Longitude East 33° from Greenwich
30
33°
30'
34°
30'
35°
30'
35°

Section I

CHAPTER III

CYPRUS

Cyprus is not, strictly speaking, a British colony. It is occupied and administered by Great Britain, under the terms of a Convention of defensive alliance between Great Britain and Turkey, which was signed at Constantinople on the 4th of June, 1878, but it remains part of the Ottoman empire, and a large portion of its revenues is allocated to the payment of tribute to the Porte; its inhabitants are not British subjects; and in an annex to the Convention it is provided that, if Kars and the other conquests made by Russia in Armenia during the Russo-Turkish war of 1877–78 are restored to Turkey, the island of Cyprus will be evacuated by Great Britain.

Not a British colony.

Cyprus is said to have derived its name from a plant (κύπρος), a species of henna, which grew in abundance on the island; and, in turn, it gave its name to the metal known to the ancients as χαλκὸς Κύπριος or *Aes Cyprium*, and to ourselves as copper.

Derivation of name.[1]

Although Cyprus is associated in mythological lore with all that is pleasant and peaceful, and was celebrated by poets as the land of flowers[2] and the chosen abode of the goddess of love[3], there is no country in the world whose fortunes

Its varied fortunes.

[1] See note to Rawlinson's *Herodotus*, Bk. ii, chap. 182. For other instances of places taking their names from plants or trees upon them, cp. Malacca, p. 199. Modern etymologists reject this derivation, but they have not supplied a better.

[2] One Greek epithet of the island was εὐώδης. Gibbon (chap. 60) speaks of 'the island of Cyprus, whose name excites the ideas of elegance and pleasure'.

[3] The Cyprian Venus and her worship were of Phoenician origin, though adopted by the Greeks.

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have reflected more faithfully the ebb and flow of races. It has been the meeting-place of Aryan and Semitic races, of West and East, of Egypt and Asia, of Christian and Moslem. It was conquered by more than one of the great monarchies of the East. Here, as in Sicily, Phoenicians and Greeks settled side by side. It held for a time a prominent position in the Hellenic world. It became a province of the Roman empire. It suffered grievously from the fanaticism of the Jews, and again, many centuries later, from that of the Arabs and the Turks. It was a dependency of Constantinople under the Byzantine Emperors. The wave of the Crusades passed over the island. The military orders made it a temporary resting-place. Genoa and Venice, the two great naval powers of the Mediterranean in the Middle Ages, each obtained a footing in it. It became, with the other islands of the Levant, part of the Turkish dominions. And in the latest phase of its history, it is still, so to speak, in the balance, occupied by a Christian power of the West, but paying tribute, as in the earliest times, to an Eastern master.

Early inhabitants.

The history of Cyprus begins at a much earlier time, and is of even wider interest, than that of Malta. Cyprus is mentioned in Egyptian and Assyrian inscriptions of a very early date. The Kittim or Chittim[1], named in the book of Genesis as one of Japhet's descendants, has been identified with the island or its inhabitants; and in Greek poetry, as in Greek history, it holds a prominent place. The actual history of Malta can only be traced back to the time of the Punic wars, although it is inferred from certain inscriptions and remains that it had previously been inhabited by Phoenicians and Greeks, but the existence of Phoenician and Greek settlements in Cyprus is no matter of inference, for both

[1] Genesis x. 4. The name also occurs in several other places in the Bible. Josephus points out that the name was preserved in that of the town of Citium.

nations are known to have settled there, in times probably long before any settlers from either nation appeared in Malta. CHAPTER III.

The only indications from which the earliest history of the island can be conjectured are those provided by the results of the excavations which have been undertaken by numerous learned societies. Few traces, and those unimportant, have been found of the Stone Age, but, as might be expected in an island so rich in copper, the Bronze Age has left many relics. To the earliest stage of this period not even an approximate date can be assigned owing to the absence of imported objects: a second stage shows traces of intercourse with Egypt and Assyria, the imported objects found being assigned to a period of about 2500 to 2000 B.C.; still later, probably as a result of the conquest by Thothmes III of Egypt (about 1500 B.C.), the influence of Egypt and Palestine is apparent, and about the same time Cyprus would seem to have been an important centre of the Aegean civilization, to which is commonly given the name of 'Mycenaean.' To this period belong the magnificent tombs, discovered at Enkomi and Episkopi, which are now in the British Museum. Subsequently a period of deterioration set in and the island appears to have relapsed into a state of comparative barbarism and isolation, but of the reasons of this decline we know no more than we know of the origin and history of the people who had reached so high a level of culture in the time before the dawn of history.

The first inhabitants of Cyprus of whom we know anything definite are the Phoenicians and the Greeks. The date of the first Phoenician immigration was probably very far back in history. The island is not much more than one hundred miles from the coasts of Tyre and Sidon; and the Phoenicians, who in very early days brought tin for their skilful craftsmen from the distant mines of Cornwall, can hardly have failed to discover in still earlier times the abundant supplies of copper in an island so close to their shores *Phoenicians.*

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as Cyprus. The main centres of Phoenician influence appear to have been Citium (Larnaca) and Idalium (Dali).

Greeks.

The manner in which the Greek colonies were established in the island is equally unknown, so far at least as authentic history is concerned; but in the 'Cyprian verses' (τὰ κύπρια), one of the poems of the Epic Cycle which the early Greeks attributed to Homer and which were no doubt of very ancient date, the fortunes of the Greek colonists in Cyprus are traced back to a time prior to the siege of Troy; and the Iliad[1] and the Odyssey themselves contain more than one allusion to Cyprus and her kings. The people of Salamis, the leading Greek city in the island, ascribed its foundation to Teucer, whose father Telamon ruled the more famous island of Salamis in prehistoric times; and the name of the town of Soli was supposed to recall the memory of Solon's visit to Cyprus.[2] Other Greek towns in the island traced their origin to Attica, Laconia, Argos, and Arcadia, and, in the latter case, it would seem with some justification, since the Greek dialect of Cypriote inscriptions is said to bear marked resemblances to that of Arcadia.

The alphabet of continental Greece appears not to have been in general use in Cyprus until the fourth century B. C.; earlier inscriptions being written in a peculiar syllabary, which is apparently related to those used in early times in Crete and the Southern Aegean. As this syllabary was in use in Cyprus in the later Mycenaean period, it would seem probable that the Greek colonists borrowed the system of writing employed by their predecessors in the island.

Early mentions of Cyprus.

The first authentic record with regard to Cyprus is an Egyptian tombstone, which refers to the conquest by Thothmes III, about 1500 B. C., of which mention has

[1] Iliad xi. 20 speaks of a suit of armour given to Agamemnon by Cinyras, the legendary hero (though not a Greek hero) of Cyprus.

[2] The kingdom of Soli is, however, mentioned in an Assyrian inscription of much earlier date than the time of Solon.

already been made.[1] Whether the conquest was permanent is not known. At a later date (about 700 B. C.) the island was conquered by Sargon of Assyria; in 568 it passed again to Egypt, then under the rule of Amasis; and in 525 B. C. it joined Cambyses in his war against Egypt and so was absorbed into the Persian Empire.

Meanwhile the power of the Greeks had been increasing. The civilization of the West was about to assert itself at Marathon and Salamis; and Cyprus, being midway between East and West, could not fail to be involved in the coming conflict.

Ionic revolt.

On the occasion of the Ionic revolt the Greek element in Cyprus showed its strength: and in 502 B. C. the whole island, with the single exception of the Phoenician town of Amathus, took part with the Ionians in renouncing the authority of the Persian king. In the war which followed, the Persians were assisted by the Phoenicians of the mainland; and, although the Ionian fleet was victorious in an engagement which took place off Cyprus, the Persian army landed on the island and utterly defeated the Cypriotes. Thus Cyprus was again, after one brief year of freedom, brought under Persian rule, and at the battle of Salamis in 480 B. C. the island contributed a contingent of not less than 150 ships to the fleet of Xerxes.

The reconquest of the island by the Persians, assisted as they were by the Phoenicians, tended to discourage the Greeks in Cyprus. Hopes were revived by an expedition sent out, after the battle of Plataea, under the command of the Spartan Pausanias. He conquered the greater part of the island, but abandoned the fruits of his victories to turn his attention to Byzantium. Thirty years later an Athenian fleet under Cimon, the son of Miltiades, endeavoured once more to wrest Cyprus from the Great King but, when Cimon

[1] Chaldaean tradition records a still earlier conquest by King Sargon of Akkad (about 3800 B.C.).

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fell while attacking Citium, the most important stronghold of Phoenician and Persian influence in the island, the Greek cause fell with him, and in spite of victories won by the Athenians both on land and sea even the essentially Greek city of Salamis passed shortly after his death into Phoenician hands.

Evagoras.

About 410 B.C. a reaction began. Evagoras, a Greek of the royal house of Teucer, made himself master of Salamis, and by his vigour and intelligence succeeded, not only in reviving the literature and the arts of Greece in his own city, but in establishing a general supremacy over the whole of the island. So great was his power that he took even the great town of Tyre on the mainland, and for no less than ten years carried on a struggle with Persia, which was only ended by his obtaining an honourable peace.

The reign of Evagoras is perhaps the most brilliant period in the history of Cyprus. Before his death, which took place in 374 B.C., he had raised the island from the position of a mere dependency of one or other of the great Eastern monarchies to a place among the leading states of Greece, and had solved the question to which division of the ancient world the Cyprian people should be assigned. Consequently when, some forty years later, the power of Persia was shattered by Alexander the Great at the battle of the Issus, the kings of the island hastened to offer him their submission as the leader of the Greek race, and sent 120 ships to assist him in the siege of Tyre.

Cyprus under the Ptolemies:

When Alexander died in 323 B.C., and his conquests were divided among his generals, the possession of Cyprus was again disputed by two rival powers on the East and South, though both claimants were now of Greek descent. Antigonus, who had established himself in Syria, and Ptolemy, the founder of the Greek dynasty in Egypt, engaged in a long struggle for the island, which in the end remained with Ptolemy, 294 B.C. In the course of this struggle, the various

little kingdoms, into which it had been divided from the earliest times, were finally abolished; and under the Greek kings of Egypt it was governed by a viceroy, or given as an appanage to a younger son of the royal family. For a time during the second century B.C. it was, with Cyrene, wholly separated from Egypt under the rule of Ptolemy Euergetes II. During the time of the Ptolemies the island appears to have enjoyed a high degree of prosperity; and when Cato took possession of it for the Roman people in 58 B.C., he sold the treasures which were captured for the enormous sum of 9000 talents.[1]

under the Romans:

The Romans claimed Cyprus under the will[2] of the last legitimate possessor of the throne of the Ptolemies, though they had allowed it to be ruled for some years by his illegitimate son; and they also asserted, as an excuse for taking it, that it harboured pirates—a reason which has more than once been used to justify annexation[3]. It was at first joined with Cilicia, and during this time it was administered by Cicero. The fact, however, that it was part of a Roman province did not prevent Julius Caesar from presenting it to Ptolemy and Arsinoë of Egypt, nor Antonius from bestowing it on Cleopatra. After the death of Cleopatra it reverted to Rome, and in 27 B.C. it was made an Imperial province. Five years later Augustus transferred it, together with Gallia Narbonensis, to the Senate in exchange for Dalmatia. It now became one of the senatorial provinces: and this was its position when St. Paul visited it, accompanied by St. Barnabas, who was by birth a Jew of Cyprus, and converted the pro-consul, Sergius Paulus, to Christianity. The new religion appears subsequently to have spread rapidly through the island.

Jewish revolt.

In the first century B.C. the Emperor Augustus granted to

[1] Cato paid the whole amount into the public treasury, keeping for himself only a bust of Zeno the Stoic, who was a native of Cyprus.

[2] Compare the claims of the Portuguese to Ceylon, p. 101.

[3] Compare the reasons given for the annexation of Labuan, pp. 245 and 249.

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Herod the Great the privilege of working the copper-mines of Cyprus and in the next century the island became the home of great numbers of Jews, driven from their own homes by the continual disturbances of the period. The Jewish element was probably little, if at all, inferior in numbers to the native population, and therefore, when they joined the general revolt of their countrymen against Trajan (117 A.D.), the whole island fell into their hands. They signalized their success by a bloody massacre of the natives, of whom 240,000 are said to have perished. 'Salamis they utterly destroyed, and slew all its inhabitants.'[1] The insurrection was suppressed with merciless severity by the future Emperor Hadrian, and the Jews were expelled from the island, the penalty of death being decreed for any member of the race who should in future be found there.

Cyprus under the Byzantine Emperors.

At the division of the Empire, Cyprus fell to the share of the Byzantine Emperor, and, with intervals of subjection to the Arabs, remained attached to the Eastern Empire until near the end of the twelfth century.

Arab invasions.

Its proximity to Syria exposed it to all the assaults of the Mohammedans and in 647 it was conquered by the armies of the Caliph Othman. Subsequently it changed hands more than once, and was even at one time divided between the Greeks and the Saracens, until Justinian II Rhinotmetus[2] withdrew all the inhabitants from his half of the island, actuated, it is said, by a not unreasonable fear that familiarity with the methods of the Saracens might lead his subjects to prefer their rule to his. The island was finally recovered for the Empire in the reign of Nicephorus Phocas in 965, after having been for more than seventy years in the hands of the Saracens. Under the Empire more than one governor

[1] Orosius, vii. 12.

[2] Justinian, the last emperor of the dynasty of Heraclius, had had the misfortune to lose not only his throne but his nose in an insurrection, the former only temporarily. The surname by which he is known to history records the latter and more permanent loss.

of Cyprus attempted to make himself independent, but these revolts were easily quelled, and the island was not again lost until 1184 when it was raised by Isaac Comnenus to the rank of a separate kingdom. Isaac, whose father's name is unknown, was related through his mother to the imperial family of Comnenus, and had assumed the surname of that house. While Governor of Tarsus he had been taken prisoner by the Armenians of Cilicia, and the Emperor Andronicus had agreed to ransom him for 60,000 byzants[1]. It was intended that this ransom should be drawn from the revenues of Cyprus, and when half of it had been paid, Bohemund, Prince of Antioch[2], to whom the Armenians had sold their prisoner, allowed Isaac to visit the island to expedite the collection of the remainder. Isaac made use of the opportunity to seize the island and proclaim himself Emperor of Cyprus. With the help of the King of Sicily, whose sister he married, he defeated the Byzantine forces which were sent against him, and had maintained his independence for more than six years when he had the misfortune to offend Richard Cœur-de-Lion.

Isaac Comnenus.

The Crusades had brought Cyprus into contact with the Western nations of Europe, its position making it a convenient halting-place for the soldiers of the Cross on their way to and from the Holy Land. In 1191, some English vessels taking part in the third Crusade, were wrecked on the island, and Isaac, who had recently concluded an alliance with Saladin, threw the crews into prison and allowed his subjects to plunder their goods. He added to his offence by trying to seize the persons of Berengaria of Navarre,

Capture of Cyprus by Richard I.

[1] The byzant is usually regarded as equivalent to about £3 at the present day.

[2] The princes of Antioch were often at issue with the Byzantine emperors, and Bohemund's father-in-law, Reginald de Chatillon, the former prince, had, about thirty years before this date, ravaged the greater part of Cyprus, robbed the churches, cut off the ears and noses of the Greek priests, put the towns to ransom, and carried off an enormous quantity of plunder.

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Richard's betrothed, and Queen Joanna of Sicily, his sister, who had been driven by a storm to take shelter in the roadstead of Limassol. To avenge these insults, for which Isaac refused satisfaction, Richard landed an army, defeated the Cypriote forces and captured Limassol, where he celebrated his wedding with Berengaria. Negotiations for peace had been opened by Isaac, but, finding the terms offered too hard, he withdrew to Famagusta and began to collect his forces for further hostilities. Richard lost no time in attacking him, and in a fortnight had made himself master of the island and captured and dethroned its emperor. In these operations he was aided by Guy de Lusignan, the King of Jerusalem, who had commanded the Franks at the disastrous battle of Hittin (1187), in which the Cross had fallen into the hands of Saladin, and which had been immediately followed by the fall of the Holy City.

The conquest by Richard was the beginning of a new epoch in the history of Cyprus. The Mohammedan occupations of the island had been only temporary, and, though the Byzantine yoke had at times been heavy and the rule of Isaac that of a tyrant, the Cypriotes had the consolation that 'their masters then were still at least their countrymen', but now for nearly seven centuries, until the treaty of 1878 enabled the English nation to atone for the mischief which had been wrought by an English king, the island was under the rule of foreigners, who governed with little or no thought for anything but their own interests.

Richard remained only a few days after his conquest, and then sailed for Palestine, leaving Richard Camville and Robert of Turnham to govern Cyprus on his behalf. He had scarcely left before his representatives were called upon to quell an insurrection and hang a pretender to the throne, and Richard, who needed his soldiers in Palestine, and was then, as ever, in need of money, was glad to sell his new possession to the Templars, who thus became masters of

Sale to the Templars.

Cyprus, as in later years the other great order, that of the Knights of St. John, became masters of the other Mediterranean islands of Rhodes and Malta. CHAPTER III.

The Templars, who offered 100,000 byzants for their bargain, soon found that they had undertaken no easy task, and after their garrison had suppressed another revolt, in the course of which it had extricated itself with some difficulty from Nicosia, which was besieged by an insurgent force, they applied to Richard to take back the island. This he was prepared to do, but he was by no means willing to refund that part of the purchase money (40,000 byzants) which had already been paid. However, a way out of the difficulty was soon found. Disputes had arisen as to the right of Guy de Lusignan to retain the kingdom of Jerusalem after the death of his wife, by right of whom he had succeeded to the throne. It was now arranged that he should resign his claims and should be allowed as compensation to take over Cyprus from the Templars, refunding the money which they had paid and making himself responsible for the remainder of the debt.[1] *Transfer to Guy de Lusignan.*

Guy took possession of his new dominion in 1192, and it remained in the possession of the Lusignan house until 1489.[2] Guy did not himself assume the title of King of Cyprus. He was already a king in view of his coronation as King of Jerusalem, and he contented himself with the style of Seigneur of Cyprus, but his brother and successor, Amaury, obtained the right to a royal crown from the Emperor Henry VI. *Cyprus under the Lusignans.*

The earlier Lusignans established in Cyprus a feudal

[1] It appears that the balance was never paid. Richard transferred his claim to Henry of Champagne, who subsequently remitted it in exchange for the county of Jaffa. The usual statement that Richard gave the island to Guy is incorrect.

[2] The main line ended with Hugh II in 1267. His successor, Hugh of Antioch, was descended from the Lusignans in the female line and assumed their name. In all, eighteen members of the house of Lusignan ruled in Cyprus.

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kingdom on the model of that of Jerusalem. The places of the numerous Greek families which emigrated were filled by Latin knights and soldiers driven from Palestine by the Saracens; French became the language of the Government; the richest properties of the Church were bestowed on Latin clerics, and all power and authority was reserved for persons of Latin race, the natives of the island being reduced to a state of vassalage. For the next three centuries the history of Cyprus is that of the dominant caste. We hear nothing of the condition of the mass of the people, much of the wars and adventures of the Lusignan kings and their Frank nobility. The energies of the earlier rulers were absorbed in fruitless attempts to enforce their claims to the throne of Jerusalem. The city itself remained permanently in the hands of the Mohammedans, but the royal title was borne by all but one of the Lusignan kings, who ruled over such dominions as the Franks retained in Syria until the fall of Acre. The later members of the house added the even more empty title of King of Armenia, after that country fell into the hands of the Moslems.[1]

Few incidents in these centuries, the record of which is one of almost constant hostilities with the Mohammedans, require notice.

In the first half of the thirteenth century the Emperor Frederick II claimed rights of sovereignty over Cyprus, and his representatives actually governed the island for some three years, until they were expelled by the forces of Henry I. In later years the same King Henry took part in the crusade of St. Louis against Egypt. In 1291 the fall of Acre, the last stronghold of the Franks in the Holy Land, brought a reinforcement to the Latin element in

[1] James I first assumed the title in 1393, after the death of King Leon VI, the last Latin king who ruled any considerable part of Armenia. The last few Kings of Armenia were of the Lusignan house, and James claimed the throne as their relative.

Cyprus. Among the exiles were the knights of the military orders to whom Henry II gave the town of Limassol as headquarters. CHAPTER III.

The knights, however, did not remain long in the island. The Templars passed on to their preceptories in the West, and their Order was dissolved a few years later[1], the Teutonic knights retired to Germany to contend with the heathen on the Prussian border, and the Hospitallers found a new home in Rhodes, which they seized in 1308. The last named, however, retained large estates in Cyprus which remained in their possession until the Turkish conquest, when they became part of the private domain of the Sultan.[2]

In 1344 Hugh IV took part in an expedition of the Hospitallers which resulted in the capture of Smyrna. At this period Cyprus appears to have attained its highest level of prosperity and the German traveller, Ludolf of Suchen, describes the nobles of the island as the richest in the world. It had become a great centre of the trade from the West to Egypt and the East, which flourished in spite of papal protests against commerce with the infidels. Its prosperity, however, received a severe check in 1349 when the great plague attacked the island, falling with especial severity on the Frank population. Cyprus now obtained so evil a reputation for unwholesome air that its trade is said to have practically ceased for a time.

In 1364 King Peter I joined the successful expedition of the Knights of Rhodes against Alexandria and during the same reign the forces of Cyprus captured several towns on the coast of Asia Minor, but the best days of the Lusignan

[1] The Order was dissolved by a Papal decree in 1312, the knights being accused of heresy and various heinous crimes. The last Grand Master, Jacques de Molay, was burned at the stake in Paris in 1314.

[2] The Hospitallers had held a specially privileged position in Cyprus since the beginning of the thirteenth century, and King Amaury had even left them to administer the affairs of the island when he transferred his Court to Acre.

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dynasty were now on the wane. Their decline was hastened by a quarrel with Genoa. A dispute arose at the coronation of King Peter II in 1372 as to the precedence of the representatives of Venice and Genoa, which resulted in a general massacre of the Genoese. The Genoese despatched a force to Cyprus to avenge the murders, overran the island and captured the king, who was obliged to pledge Famagusta to them for his ransom, and finally to hand it over to them altogether in exchange for the liberty of his uncle who had also been taken prisoner. The best port in the island thus passed into foreign hands (1376) and was not recovered until 1464.

In 1402 King Janus, encouraged by the decay of the republic of Genoa, endeavoured to possess himself of Famagusta, but Genoa was at this time a dependency of France, and the intervention of a French fleet compelled the king to abandon his project and to pay a heavy indemnity. The quarrel was patched up, and the forces of Genoa and Cyprus joined in an attack on the Mohammedans, the Genoese ravaging the Syrian coast and King Janus the shore of Egypt. The result was disastrous to Cyprus, as the vengeance of the Sultan of Egypt fell heavily on the island. In 1417 Limassol was sacked, and in 1425 nearly the whole island was ravaged by the Egyptian forces[1], Nicosia being taken and the king carried as a prisoner to Egypt. He remained in captivity for some fifteen months, and was then allowed to ransom himself at enormous cost. He further undertook to pay tribute to Egypt.

In the reign of John II, the son of Janus, Cyprus, already weakened by the Egyptian invasions, by renewed outbreaks of plague, by the damage done by swarms of locusts, and by prolonged droughts, was still further disturbed by internal

[1] There are conflicting accounts of this expedition. According to one story, Famagusta was taken and pillaged; according to another, the Egyptians landed peacefully at that port, probably with the connivance of the Genoese.

dissensions, roused by the endeavours of the king's Greek wife to destroy the Latin Church, to which the Lusignans and the ruling classes were attached, and to restore the Orthodox Church, to which the general population belonged, to the position which it had held in former times. The kingdom was visibly tottering to its fall, and the end would probably have come in 1458, but that the intervention of the Knights of Rhodes prevented an invasion, for which the Turcoman Emir of Caramania had made great preparations As it was, Corycus, the last remnant of the possessions of the Lusignans on the mainland, was now lost.

The death of John brought further troubles. Having no legitimate son, he left his throne to his daughter Charlotte, who married Louis of Savoy shortly after her succession. After a reign of four years she was driven out of the island[1] by her father's illegitimate son, James, who had obtained the assistance of the Sultan of Egypt, to whom he did homage. Two important events marked the reign of the successful usurper, the recovery of Famagusta from the Genoese in 1464, with the assistance, according to some accounts, of Egyptian troops, and his marriage with Catherine Cornaro in 1471. Catherine was the daughter of a Venetian noble, and the laws of the Republic forbade any marriage between a member of the nobility and a foreign prince, but the prospect of increasing the already great influence of Venice in Cyprus was too good to be lost. The difficulty was therefore removed by the ingenious expedient of declaring Catherine to be the adopted daughter of St. Mark and her husband the son-in-law of the Republic. James died two years after his marriage, poisoned, it is said, by the orders of the Government of Venice. He left his kingdom to his yet

[1] Charlotte made over to the house of Savoy her claims to the crowns of Cyprus, Jerusalem and Armenia, and the title of King of Cyprus and Jerusalem was borne by the head of the House of Savoy until Victor Emmanuel became King of Italy.

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unborn child with remainder first to his illegitimate children and then to other branches of the Lusignan house. A son was born and received the name of James and the title of King, but he survived his birth scarcely two years. At his death, which is also ascribed to poison administered by the agents of Venice, the Republic contended that his rights passed to his mother, and, accordingly, after a rising had been suppressed and Venetian garrisons established in the towns, the island was governed nominally by Catherine but really by Venetian officers until 1489, when the Queen abdicated in favour of Venice.

The House of Lusignan had ruled Cyprus for nearly three hundred years, but all traces of their influence in the island appear to have been obliterated almost at once. Their Frank nobility had been practically annihilated by plague and the chances of war, and on the mass of the population they had never made, and had probably never attempted to make, any impression.

Cyprus under Venetian rule.

The rule of Venice lasted for eighty-two years. Throughout this time Cyprus was governed solely in the interests of the Republic. From first to last the Venetian tenure of the island was essentially a military occupation, the object of Venice being to use it as a base for her war against the Turks. The Venetians did nothing to further the interests of the inhabitants or for the development of the resources of the island, contenting themselves with drawing from it as large a revenue as its impoverished state would supply.

The administration was entrusted to a Lieutenant, changed every two years, who was assisted by two Councillors, and at times by a Proveditor, who was specially charged with the control of the troops. Famagusta was under the special charge of a Captain, called Captain of Famagusta or Captain of Cyprus, who governed the Eastern part of the island. The Captain also performed the functions of the Provĕditor when that office was in abeyance.

Only one incident of importance is recorded during the Venetian occupation—a rising of the inhabitants in 1546, which was speedily repressed. The rest of the history of this period is a chronicle of decay. Drought, floods, locusts, and earthquakes added to the distress caused by the misrule of Venice, trade languished, manufactures practically ceased, and such of the population as could afford to leave the island emigrated to other lands[1], thinking even the rule of the Turk better than that of the great Republic. CHAPTER III.

Turkish invasion.

Those inhabitants who remained soon had an opportunity of forming an opinion on this point. The tribute which the later Lusignan kings had paid to Egypt was continued by Venice and, when Egypt was conquered by Selim I in 1517, was paid to the Porte. Selim II treated the payment as a recognition of his sovereignty and demanded the surrender of the island. The demand was followed by an invasion.[2] The fact that Venice was at peace with the Turks was ignored, the Sultan's advisers having put forward the convenient doctrine that any treaty might be disregarded by a Mohammedan sovereign in order to recover from the infidels territory which had once belonged to Islam—as Cyprus had belonged to the Arabs.

The Turkish forces landed at Limassol on July 1, 1570. Limassol surrendered at once; Nicosia was invested three weeks later and taken by storm after a seven weeks' siege, 20,000 of its inhabitants being put to the sword. Siege was then laid to Famagusta, which capitulated early in August, 1571, after having held out for ten months in the vain hope of

[1] The extent of the depopulation of the island may be conjectured from several decrees issued by the Republic. Inhabitants of Corfu and the Morea were invited to settle in Famagusta, and promised free transport and presents of money. Another decree authorized persons banished for homicide to return to the island, so long as they did not go back to the district where the crime was committed.

[2] According to one account, Selim, a noted wine-bibber, was so fond of the wine of Cyprus that he determined to own the island which produced such a vintage.

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receiving help from Venice. The terms of surrender were not respected by the conquerors. They repeated the massacre of Nicosia with every form of savagery. The gallant Captain of Cyprus, Marco Antonio Bragadino, was treated with every variety of insult, subjected to the most excruciating tortures, and finally flayed alive in public.[1] The fall of Famagusta put an end to the Venetian resistance, and all Cyprus passed into the hands of the Turks. When Venice in 1573 was obliged to make peace with the Porte, she was constrained not only definitely to cede Cyprus but also to pay the expenses of the Turkish conquest (300,000 ducats).

Cyprus under the Turks.

Bad as the condition of the Cypriotes had been before, it was still worse under the dominion of the Turks. The island fell more and more into decay; and the Turkish rule was marked by spells of great severity, the most notable of which occurred in 1821, when a number of the clergy and leading men, who had been summoned to Nicosia, and charged with complicity in the revolt of Greece, were put to death.

From 1832 to 1840, the island was once more attached to Egypt, the pasha of which province was at war with his suzerain at Constantinople. When it again became directly subject to the Sultan, the signs of the times were evidenced by improved administration. A Governor was appointed with a fixed salary, and, later on, the establishment of what is known as the Vilayet system gave the Cypriotes a consultative share in the management of their own affairs. Under this system prosperity began to return; and, on the whole, the condition of the people compared favourably with that of other Christian subjects of Turkey when, by the Anglo-Turkish Convention of the 4th of June, 1878, the island

[1] Bragadino's skin was stuffed with straw and taken to Constantinople. It was subsequently redeemed by his relations, and deposited in the church of SS. John and Paul at Venice.

was handed over by the Porte to be administered by Great Britain.

Anglo-Turkish Convention.

By this Convention, which was made in the interval between the conclusion of the treaty which Russia compelled Turkey to sign at San Stefano, as the result of the Russo-Turkish war, and the meeting of the Berlin Conference, the British Government undertook to join the Sultan in defending his Asiatic possessions by force of arms, in the event of Batoum, Ardahan, or Kars being retained by Russia and of any attempt being made at any future time by Russia to take any further Turkish territories in Asia. This undertaking, however, was given upon two conditions—(1) that the Sultan would introduce necessary reforms into the government of those territories; and (2) that, in order to enable the British Government to make provision for executing their part of the engagement, the Sultan should assign Cyprus to be occupied and administered by Great Britain. In an annex to the Convention it was provided that a sum equivalent to the excess of revenue over the expenditure of Cyprus, calculated upon the average of the previous five years, should be paid over annually to the Sultan; and that, if Russia should restore to Turkey Kars and the other conquests made by her in Armenia during the last war, the island would be evacuated by England and the Convention would be at an end.

Administration.

On the administration being taken over by Great Britain, the government was entrusted to an officer bearing the title of High Commissioner, who received all the powers usually conferred upon a Colonial Governor, and a Legislative Council was constituted with an official majority as in a Crown Colony. The Christian population, however, began almost at once to press for some form of self-government; and in 1882 the Legislative Council was reconstructed, and made to consist of twelve elected and only six official members, besides the High Commissioner. The elected

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members, who are thus in a majority of two to one, are composed of two orders, one member being elected by the Mohammedan voters, and three by those who are not Mohammedans, in each of the three electoral districts into which the island is divided. The 'non-Mohammedan' voters are mainly Christians, but the term has been adopted so as to include a few Jews and others who are neither Christians nor Mohammedans. British subjects, and foreigners who have resided for five years in Cyprus, are entitled to the franchise, and are eligible for election, in the same way as Ottoman subjects.

Administrative divisions.

For administrative purposes, the island is divided into six districts—Nicosia, Kyrenia, Famagusta, Larnaca, Limassol, and Paphos. Each district is presided over by a Commissioner, representing the Executive authority, who has under his command the revenue, police, clerical, and medical establishments, and who acts for certain purposes on behalf of the education, forest, and postal departments of the government.

Taxation.

The principal sources of revenue are tithes on cereals, which are collected in kind, taxes known as 'verghi' on property and income, taxes on sheep, goats, and pigs, duties on imports and on some classes of exported produce, excise duties, and the profits realized on the sale of salt, which here, as in Ceylon, is a Government monopoly.

The Turks taxed everything, and employed almost every known device for raising revenue. Since the British occupation certain readjustments have been effected in the case of taxes which pressed unfairly on the people; but, although the ordinary revenue largely exceeds the ordinary expenditure, the heavy burden of the Turkish tribute has made any far-reaching remission of taxation impossible.

Finances.

The average revenue during the five financial years from April 1, 1900, to March 31, 1905, was £201,539 a year, and the average expenditure, exclusive of the tribute, was

£141,123 a year. But as the tribute amounts to £92,800 a year[1], it was necessary in every year until 1904–5 to obtain a grant in aid from the British Treasury. The amount so paid from British funds from the date of occupation up to March 31, 1905, was £813,085.

Public Debt.

A loan of £314,000 has been authorized, and the money is being gradually expended; £60,000 is allocated to irrigation, and the remainder to harbour and railway works.

Currency.

The British sovereign and Cyprus silver and bronze pieces are the legal tender currency of the island. The denominations of the smaller coins are expressed in piastres (9 piastres = 1 shilling).

Area and geography.

The area of Cyprus is 3,584 square miles. It is thirty times as large as Malta, and larger than any island in the Mediterranean except Sicily and Sardinia. As compared with English counties, it is not quite so large as the space occupied by Kent, Sussex, and Surrey, which contain altogether 3,758 square miles.

In shape it was compared by the ancients to the outspread skin of a deer. Its greatest length is about 140 miles, and its greatest breadth from North to South about 60 miles. The larger part of it consists of an irregular parallelogram about 100 miles long and from 60 to 30 miles broad; the remainder consists of a peninsula, called the Carpas, which runs out towards the North-West for some 40 miles, with an average width of only 5 or 6 miles.

Cyprus looks towards the South and East, towards Egypt and Syria. It is not an easily accessible island. Its shores are not indented with estuaries; it has no navigable rivers; and its mountains line the coast to a great extent, forming a barrier against the outside world.

[1] The tribute is not actually handed over to the Porte but is paid by the Island Government to a special account at the Bank of England and is then applied to the payment of interest on the Turkish guaranteed loan of 1855, which would otherwise have had to be paid by Great Britain and France.

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Mountains.

There are two main ranges or groups of mountains. One runs continuously along the edge of the Northern coast, for some 100 miles, from Cape Kormakiti to Cape Andreas. It is nowhere more than a few miles wide, and its highest peaks are only half as high as those of the Southern range. The latter, less continuous, loftier, and more extensive than the Northern mountains, fills up in great measure the West and South-West of the island, its eastern spurs running nearly to Larnaca. It attains its greatest height in Mount Troödos (the ancient Olympus), which is 6,406 feet above the sea. Between the Northern range and the Southern group of mountains is the fertile plain of the Mesaorea, varying in breadth from 10 to 20 miles, and extending from the bay of Morphou upon the West to that of Famagusta on the East.

Rivers.

Cyprus is not so entirely destitute of rivers as Malta: but those which it has resemble mountain torrents, and are mostly dry in the summer time.[1] The most important is the Pedias, which rises in the range of Mount Troödos, and, after flowing by Nicosia, through the plain of the Mesaorea, would make its way into the sea about four miles to the North of Famagusta, were it not for the fact that the waters are intercepted and stored in the great irrigation reservoirs of the district.

Climate.

The climate is not generally unhealthy, but the rainfall is small, the annual average being only about 18 inches; the heat in summer is considerable; and the configuration of the land, combined with defective drainage, is conducive to fever, which, however, is not of a very severe type. Since the commencement of the British occupation, various sanitary measures have been enforced by law, and Cyprus has now nearly as low a death-rate as any other European

[1] Some of these streams flow throughout the summer, but during that time their waters are diverted for irrigation purposes and therefore their beds are dry during the latter part of their course.

country. When first stationed in the island the British troops suffered severely; but a healthy winter station was found after a time, and splendid summer quarters have been provided on the high ground of Troödos for the one company of infantry which is now stationed in the island. CHAPTER III.

In ancient times Cyprus was celebrated both for its mineral and for its vegetable products. Its mines yielded large quantities of copper, richer metals are said to have been found, and salt was then, as now, one of its resources. Its flowers were famous; it was credited with wine, oil, and honey; and forests of pine and cedar, much used in ship-building, covered a large extent of both mountain and plain. The copper mines, which were situated on the slopes of Mount Troödos, were extensively worked down to the time of the Romans, but they have been left idle since. In recent years attempts have been made to open up the old workings in the district of Paphos, but no definite result has yet been attained. The forests, which once spread over the whole island, are now mainly confined to the highest parts of the mountain ranges. The destruction of the trees is believed to have taken place mainly within the 100 years which preceded the British occupation, and their disappearance has, as in other lands, been accompanied with detriment to soil and health alike.[1] Since the British occupation, such forest tracts as still remain have been demarcated[2] and protected, with a view to the restoration of the trees by natural processes. The progress of natural reafforestation is, however, very slow, as most of the seedlings, which spring up in the winter rains, die off in the summer heat. Lack of funds has prevented any serious attempts at artificial reafforestation. *Products* (1) *Ancient.*

The prosperity of the island at the present day depends upon its agricultural produce. The most important pro- (2) *Modern.*

[1] Compare what is said on this point in connexion with Ceylon and Mauritius, pp. 110 and 151–3.

[2] The forests now cover about 700 square miles.

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ducts are grain of all kinds, sesame, linseed, wine, grapes, raisins, silk, olives, locust beans (carobs), and cotton.

The value of exports in 1904 amounted to £466,130; the main items being, carobs (£104,301), barley (£102,330), livestock (£50,496), wheat (£32,079), wine (£29,188,) raisins (£16,608), and silk (13,750). About one-third of the exports are sent to Great Britain.

The wine of Cyprus has been famous from very early times. It is now exported chiefly to Egypt, the markets of Southern Europe being mostly shut to it on account of prohibitive duties. The industry was depressed by the vexatious regulations and heavy taxation imposed by the Turks, but it revived after the British occupation. The taxes were reduced by one-half, with the result that the amount produced more than doubled in three years, and within recent years other measures have been introduced with a view to giving further encouragement to the wine and spirit trade.

Silk culture is also an industry of old standing, having first been introduced in the reign of Justinian (A. D. 557).

The two main difficulties with which the agriculture of Cyprus has had to contend are drought and plagues of locusts.

To meet the former difficulty it was decided in 1897 to expend £60,000 in irrigation works and two large reservoirs have now been constructed in the Famagusta district, the Synkrasi, containing about 70,000,000 cubic feet of water, which was completed in 1899, and the Mesaorea, the main works of which were finished in 1901. When in full working order the reservoirs of the Mesaorea system will cover nearly 5,000 acres and contain about 1,200,000,000 cubic feet of water, and the channels from them will irrigate about 50 square miles of rich alluvial land.

Locusts were until recent years a terrible scourge to the island, as their enormous swarms devoured every green thing

that came in their way. In the times of the Lusignans we hear of endeavours to combat this plague by the exhibition of relics and eikons, and by prayer and cursing. In some cases these measures are stated to have been effective, but doubtless, as a general rule, the victory remained with the locusts.[1] After the British occupation, more practical means were adopted. A special tax was levied to provide funds, and a reward was offered for the collection and destruction of the eggs of the locusts, and in 1881, at a cost of some £12,000, over 1,300 tons of eggs were destroyed. Later, this plan was abandoned in favour of pits and traps for the capture of the live locusts. This method met with great success, and in 1883 nearly 200,000 millions were destroyed. The evil has now been so effectually diminished that no appreciable damage is done to the crops by these insects, and no action is at present taken by the government beyond the offer of a small reward for the collection of live locusts. In 1904 about 190,000,000 were collected and destroyed, the rewards paid to the collectors amounting to some £2,700.

Population.

There is reason to believe that Cyprus, like Malta, was much more thickly populated before the Christian era than it is at present, though the statements of ancient writers, some of whom rated the total population as high as 2,000,000, are doubtless grossly exaggerated. As a result of the incursions of hostile armies, of the ravages of plague and of the distress caused by earthquakes, droughts, floods, and locusts, the numbers fell greatly in historical times, and after the Turkish conquest the island is said to have contained only 80,000 inhabitants. Since that date the number has considerably increased. A rough census taken by the Turks in 1841 gave a total of about 110,000, and the census of 1881, the first year for which trustworthy figures are available, showed

[1] A case is recorded in the fifteenth century of a priest being suffocated by the swarm of locusts which he was engaged in cursing.

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that the numbers had then risen to 186,173. The census of 1901 gave a total of 237,022, but the island is still very sparsely inhabited, there being only sixty-six people to the square mile as against 1926 in Malta.

Race and religion.

The population at the present day contains, as it did in the earliest times, both an Eastern and a Western element. The distinction between the descendants of the Greek and the Phoenician settlers was practically obliterated when the various independent kingdoms were united under one ruler in the time of the Ptolemies; and, until the capture of the island by the Turks in 1571, the inhabitants might have been described as being mainly Greek in character, although differing somewhat from the Greeks proper as the result of their closer contact with the East. The Turkish occupation brought in again a considerable population of Eastern origin, who have kept themselves distinct from the rest of the inhabitants; and at the census of 1901 the total population of 237,022 was made up of 51,309 Mohammedans, 182,739 members of the Greek Church, and 2,974 persons of other denominations. The Mohammedans form, as the foregoing figures show, between one quarter and one-fifth of the whole population, but their rate of increase is slow as compared with that of the Greek element.

Practically the whole of the Greek population belongs to the native Cypriote Church, which is an independent or autocephalous[1] Church in communion with the Orthodox Greek.

Christianity was introduced into the island, as has been already stated, by St. Paul and St. Barnabas, the latter of whom was subsequently martyred at his native town of Salamis. The faith spread rapidly, and at an early date the island contained fourteen episcopal sees. The pretensions of the Patriarch of Antioch to exercise authority over the Cypriote Church in Byzantine times were stubbornly resisted,

[1] i. e. the Archbishop of Cyprus is not subordinate to any Patriarch.

and at the end of the fifth century A.D. the Emperor Zeno, influenced, as the story goes, by the gift of a manuscript of St. Matthew's gospel, found in the tomb of St. Barnabas and supposed to be written by the latter Saint's own hand, gave an authoritative decision against them, and authorized the Archbishop of Cyprus to wear a cope of imperial purple, to carry a sceptre instead of a pastoral staff, and to sign his name in the imperial red ink, privileges which have been retained to this day. Even the Lusignans, while plundering the property of the Church for the benefit of their Latin clergy and tyrannizing over its ministers, respected its ecclesiastical independence, which has remained unquestioned for the last fourteen centuries. The fourteen episcopal sees are now reduced to four, the Archbishopric of Cyprus, with its seat at Nicosia, and the Bishoprics of Cyrenia, Paphos, and Citium. Unfortunately, since the death of the Archbishop Sophronios, internal disputes have prevented the appointment of a successor, and the archiepiscopal see has accordingly remained vacant for over five years. CHAPTER III.

Language.

The census returns show that over 78 per cent. of the population speak Greek as their mother-tongue, and a little under 21 per cent. Turkish. Many of the Mohammedans speak Greek as well as Turkish; and in Nicosia and several outlying districts there are some whose mother-tongue is Greek. These last are believed to be the descendants of Greeks who from motives of policy embraced the religion of their conquerors.

Towns.

The principal towns at the present time are Nicosia, Limassol, and Larnaca, which, in 1901, had respectively 14,752, 8,928, and 7,964 inhabitants. Nicosia, the capital, which is situated in the middle of the plain of the Mesaorea, is a comparatively modern town, having only become the seat of government in the time of the Lusignan kings. Larnaca, on the other hand, is upon or close to the site of the Phoenician town of Citium, whose origin is lost in antiquity.

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Limassol is situated on the South coast, about six miles to the Westward of the site of the ancient town of Amathus. Nicosia is, as already stated, the seat of government. Larnaca is the chief port of the Mesaorea, and the principal commercial town. Limassol is also a trading town, and a seaport of growing importance on account of the wine trade. Neither Larnaca nor Limassol, however, has more than a roadstead. The old town of Paphos, once renowned throughout the world as the site of the worship of the Cyprian Venus, has ceased to exist, but New Paphos, some eight miles away, is a small trading port. Salamis, upon the Eastern coast, the most famous of the Greek towns in ancient days, has been for many centuries in ruins; and the more recent town of Famagusta, which is four or five miles from the site of Salamis, and which was the most important port and fortress under the Lusignan and Venetian rule, is also largely in ruins, although the fortifications still remain. The port has in recent years been greatly improved, and the harbour works, which are estimated to cost about £135,000, are still proceeding. Though greatly fallen from its former proud position,[1] the harbour is still the most important in the island, and with the completion of the harbour works may perhaps look for a return of some part of its earlier prosperity.

The town of Varoshia, about a mile outside the walls, is of some importance and with Famagusta forms a municipality. It is inhabited by Greeks, the few Turks of the place usually residing within the fortified area of Famagusta itself.

On the North coast of the island the little town of Keryneia or Cyrenia, the foundation of which is attributed to Cyrus, has a small roadstead, which was improved in the years 1889–91 by the addition of a breakwater and a quay, though

[1] The fourteenth-century author of the *Voiage and Travaile of Sir John Maundevile Kt.* says: 'At Famagost is on of the principalle Hàvenes of the See that is in the world: and there arryven there Cristene Men and Sarazynes and Men of alle Naciouns.'

the anchorage is still somewhat unsafe. It carries on a certain amount of trade with the opposite coast of Asia Minor. CHAPTER III.

Cyprus contains, besides village roads, 705 miles of main roads, made entirely during the British occupation, and in the last few years a narrow-gauge railway has been constructed. It runs at present from Famagusta to Nicosia, and is being extended as far as Morphou on the North-Western side of the island. *Communications.*

When Cyprus was first occupied by Great Britain there were but few schools, and not a single printing press, in the island. No government aid was given to any Christian school. The only schools in receipt of grants were a Turkish High School at Nicosia and a number of 'Hodja Schools' throughout the island, in which latter nothing was taught except the recitation of the Koran in Arabic—a tongue unknown to the Cypriote Turks. Now there are ten Greek newspapers and one Turkish; and in 1904–5 there were 392 Christian and 160 Moslem primary schools in operation, in addition to the Moslem High School maintained by Government, and the Greek gymnasium at Nicosia, which receives a government grant. *Education.*

The change which has probably been most acceptable to the people at large is the reform of the law-courts. Under the Turkish régime, the administration of justice was largely under the control of the executive, since no action could be brought in the courts without the permission of the Turkish Governor or the Kaimakams (the Commissioners of the districts into which the island was divided). This system was at first continued, but the result was not satisfactory, and, after much discussion, a radical change was made and the law courts were wholly dissociated from the executive government. Barristers from the United Kingdom were appointed to preside constantly in every court of any importance; and ustice was brought home to the people by the establishment *Law and Justice.*

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of a number of native village judges to hear petty civil cases. Justice is now administered by a Supreme Court, composed of a Chief Justice and a Puisne Judge, by Assize Courts which are held three times a year in each of the six districts of the island, and are composed of the Judges of the Supreme Court and of the District Court sitting together; by District Courts, consisting of an English barrister as president, and two other members—one a Christian and the other a Mohammedan, who also possess magisterial powers; by the village courts already mentioned; and, as regards religious cases affecting the Mohammedan population, by Mohammedan religious courts, for the continuance of which special provision was made in the Convention. All Ottoman subjects in the island are subject to Turkish law (most of which is embodied in codes), modified by the local ordinances and Imperial Orders in Council which have been passed since the date of the British occupation. British, and all other non-Ottoman, subjects live under British law, modified by any local ordinance or Order in Council which may affect the particular question at issue. All questions of land are decided in accordance with Ottoman law, as modified by Cyprus Statutes.

General summary.

Cyprus is not one of the parts of the world destined for British settlement. It is not a rocky promontory or island suited to be a fortress of a great naval Power, nor is it an important port of call for passing trade. It has not been acquired by force of arms nor even by definite cession; but it has passed into the keeping of the British Government, who hold it for the benefit of the Cypriote people, as a point from which the coasts of Asia Minor can be watched, and in order that it may not pass into the hands of any other Power, whose presence there might threaten the line of communication between England and the East. Situated as it is upon the border line between East and West, its possession brings Great Britain into contact both with the

Greek race and with Turkish rule. Here, and here alone, the British Empire takes in one of the centres of classical romance: here the English have returned to an island which was conquered centuries ago by an English king: and here they are called upon to nurse back, if possible, to prosperity an Eastern land of promise and decay.

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In the foregoing chapter free use has been made of the store of information contained in the *Handbook of Cyprus*, by Sir J. T. HUTCHINSON and C. D. COBHAM. (Issued yearly.)

Section II

THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES AT THE MOUTH OF THE RED SEA

CHAPTER I

ADEN AND ITS DEPENDENCIES

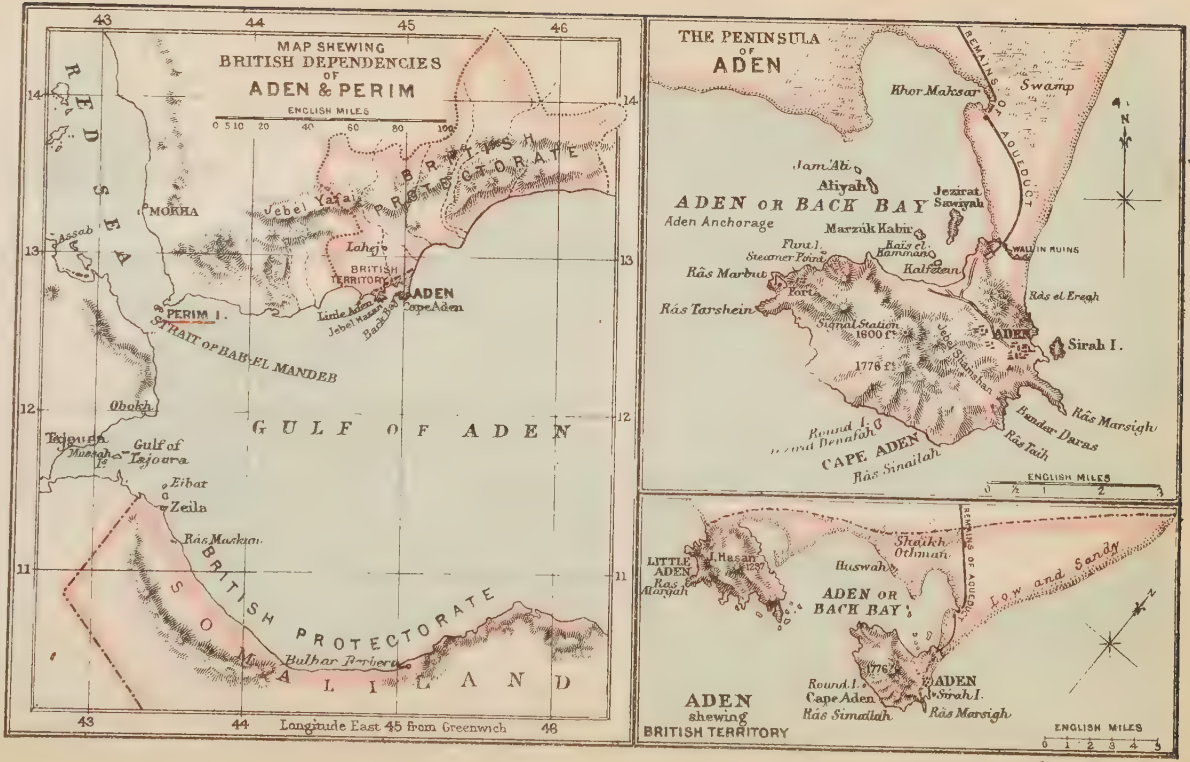
Section II. *General.*

Steamers, following the direct route from England to the East and Australia, enter the inland seas by the Straits of Gibraltar[1], and pass again, in about a fortnight's time, into the open ocean by the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, or 'Gate of Tears', which form the Southern entrance to the Red Sea.

Aden lies about 100 miles to the East of the Straits, on the Southern coast of Arabia. Its outpost, the little island of Perim, is in the middle of the Straits. In the same group of British dependencies may be placed the Kuria Muria islands, lying far to the Eastward of Aden, off the Southern coast of Arabia: while the island of Socotra off Cape Guardafui, and the districts of Arabia in the neighbourhood of Aden, are under British protection.

The popular view of Aden is that it is a barren rock, now utilized as a coaling station for British steamers, but otherwise devoid of historical interest or of commercial importance, but this view is erroneous. Aden has, on the contrary, had a considerable past; and its history is full of interest as an index to the changes which have taken place in the trade routes between the East and the West. It was of great importance before the passage round the Cape was discovered. It declined as that route came more and more

[1] The Straits of Gibraltar are, at their narrowest points, $7\frac{3}{4}$ miles wide. The Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, $13\frac{1}{2}$.



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into use: and it has risen again with the opening of the Suez Canal, and with the return of trade to the first and natural highway between Europe and Asia—a highway more important than ever, now that there is a Southern as well as an Eastern world to be reached from Europe.

Name.

Aden is in the part of Arabia included in the province of Yemen. The 'Eden' of Ezekiel xxvii. 23[1] has been rightly or wrongly identified with it. Ἀδάνη is found as a name for it, though not in classical times; it was called by Ptolemy Ἀραβίας ἐμπόριον; and both the port and the district were known to the ancients as εὐδαίμων Ἀραβία[2]—Arabia Felix.

The classical name of Perim[3] was the island of Diodorus. That of Socotra[4] was the island of Dioscorides, both 'Socotra' and 'Dioscorides' being supposed to be a corruption of the Sanscrit 'Dvîpa Sukhâdhâra', 'island abode of bliss'.

Aden and Socotra would now-a-days hardly be selected as the scenes of an earthly paradise; but the ancients naturally looked for 'islands of the blest' at the extreme limits of their world: and the spices and other riches, which reached them from Arabia and the East, caused a halo to be thrown around the parts from which they were vaguely known to come, and which in the very earliest times were grouped under the name of Ophir[5].

[1] 'Haran, and Canneh, and Eden, the merchants of Sheba, Asshur, and Chilmad, were thy merchants.'

[2] See the *Commerce and Navigation of the Erythraean Sea, being a translation of the 'Periplus Maris Erythraei'* by J. M. M'Crindle, M.A., Trübner & Co., 1879. In the *Periplus* the name εὐδαίμων Ἀραβία is applied to the town alone, and the epithet is explained by the rich transit trade between India and Egypt of which Aden had been the scene before the date at which the *Periplus* was written: that date was probably towards the end of the first century A.D.

[3] In King's description of Perim it is stated that the island is called in Ptolemy 'Perantonomasiam', 'extending across to Asia'.

[4] For the name and early notices of Socotra see *The Book of Ser Marco Polo*, edited by Col. Yule, vol. ii, pp. 400, &c.

[5] For Ophir see Humbolt's *Kosmos*, and Heeren's *Historical Researches* (Asiatic Nations, Phoenicians, chap. 3). Heeren says, 'Ophir was the general name for the rich countries of the South, lying on the African, Arabian, and Indian coasts as far as at that time known.'

SECTION II. *History: Ancient.*

At any rate, at the beginning of ancient history, Aden, under its native kings, seems to have been well known to Phoenician merchants as a centre for the Arabian trade both by land and by sea, and also as a great entrepôt of commerce between the Far East on the one side and Egypt and Europe on the other: while the Greek names quoted above, and the legend of a Greek colony having been planted in Socotra by Alexander the Great, show that this part of the world was known at least to the later Greeks.

Aden is supposed to have been taken by the Romans, but the date is unknown and the fact not beyond dispute.[1] A Christian mission reached it in the reign of Constantius, in the year 342 A. D.; and at some time or other Christianity was introduced into Socotra, where it still existed in a debased form as late as the seventeenth century.

Mediaeval.

In the sixth century A. D. Aden fell into the hands of the Abyssinians, subsequently into those of the Persians. It became Mohammedan with the rest of Arabia; and in the tenth century Yemen became an independent province. Aden was visited by Marco Polo towards the end of the thirteenth century. His account shows the port to have been, at the time of his visit, a great place for the transit of goods between India and Egypt, and also for the export of horses from Arabia to India. It had also, according to some authorities, trading relations with China; and later, early in the fifteenth century, ships are recorded to have been sent from China to Aden.[2]

Among other travellers who visited the port in the Middle Ages were Sanuto, the compatriot of Marco Polo, who reached it at the beginning of the fourteenth century, and who

[1] The alleged capture by the Romans is based on a passage in the *Periplus*, for which see the translation referred to on the preceding page. If the story is true the incident probably occured at the time of the expedition of Aelius Gallus into Arabia Felix (B. C. 24).

[2] See *Cathay and the way thither* [Hakluyt series], Preliminary Essay. See also Col. Yule's *Marco Polo*, vol. ii, pp. 436–7.

alludes to it as Ahaden: the Moor, Ibn Batuta, whose visit was a few years later, and who describes it as a place of great trade, and mentions the tanks, which have been in great measure repaired during the British occupation: and the Venetian Conti, who found it a rich city in the first half of the fifteenth century. CHAPTER I.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century the Bolognese traveller, Ludovico di Varthema, reached Aden. He has left a record of it as 'the strongest city that was ever seen on level ground', and as a rendezvous for ships from India, Ethiopia, and Persia.

Modern. The Portuguese.

By the time of his visit the Portuguese had already found their way to the East round the Cape. Religion combined with the prospect of commercial advantages to attract them to the Red Sea. They hoped to reach the land of the Abyssinian Christians, whose ruler they identified with the long-talked-of Prester John[1]; and they wished, by blocking the Red Sea route, to secure a monopoly of the rich trade which passed through Mohammedan hands between the East and the West.

In 1506–7 Tristan da Cunha and Albuquerque landed in Socotra. There they found native Christians, whose Christianity was alleged to date from the days of St. Thomas, but who required to be reinstructed in the ceremonies of the Church. After taking a Mohammedan stronghold, they built a fortress of their own in the island, which was, however, soon afterwards abandoned. The possession of Aden was one of the central points of Albuquerque's policy in the East.[2] He left on record that, for the preservation of India to the Portuguese empire, there were four places of which his countrymen should have absolute command; one of them

[1] See Gibbon's note on Prester John, in chap. 47. In the same chapter he refers to Nestorian Christianity in Socotra. From the remains of carved crosses, &c., found in the island it seems very probable that the Christianity of Socotra was really of Abyssinian origin.

[2] See the *Commentaries of Albuquerque*, in the Hakluyt series.

SECTION II.

was Aden, the other three, Ormuz, Diu, and Goa: and the author of the *Commentaries of Albuquerque* mentions three points as being the keys of the East and the principal marts of commerce, Malacca, Aden, and Ormuz. The great Governor, however, never succeeded in taking Aden. In 1513 he attacked it at Easter time with a strong force, but was beaten off; and, after sailing up the Red Sea and erecting a cross on the island of Perim, he turned again to the more accessible and more profitable coasts of India. His further preparations for taking the coveted point of vantage were cut short by death.

In 1516 Aden, having suffered severely in a siege by the forces of Egypt, felt itself too weak to oppose an overwhelming Portuguese force, by which it was threatened, and tendered its submission. The offer was not immediately accepted, as the Portuguese fleet was required for operations in the Red Sea: and by the time that the ships returned the fortifications had been repaired and the offer was withdrawn. In 1524, and again in 1530, the ruler of Aden, hard pressed by the Turks, declared himself a vassal of the King of Portugal, and agreed to pay a yearly tribute, but Portuguese protection could not save the town from being captured by a stratagem by Solyman the Magnificent in 1538. Strongly fortified and garrisoned by Solyman, Aden remained for some years in the possession of the Turks, but a successful revolt again restored its freedom. In 1547 it was surrendered by the inhabitants to Dom Payo de Noronha, but the Portuguese were unable to maintain their footing there, and in 1551 the town fell once more under the dominion of the Turks, who held it until they were expelled from the Yemen in 1630. Subsequently it passed into the hands of one Arab chief after another. The historian of Albuquerque states that Aden was a small place before the arrival of the Europeans in the East[1],

[1] John Jourdain, the first President of the East India Company's settlements in the East, who visited Aden in 1609, observes 'This cittie

and that it became great as a point of call for native shipping, under stress of the blockade maintained by the Portuguese fleets over the traffic of the Indies. This may have been the temporary result of the coming of the Portuguese to India; but the lasting effect of opening the ocean highway round the Cape was to diminish the importance of the Red Sea route and of the position which commanded it. The Dutch paid little attention to Aden, though their countryman Linschoten described it as the strongest and fairest town of Arabia Felix. With the growth of the coffee industry, Mocha superseded it as an outlet for Arabian produce, and when visited at the beginning of the last century it was in a half-ruinous condition.[1]

The English.

The London East India Company first sent a ship to Aden in 1609. Nine years later a factory was established at Mocha. In 1799, in consequence of the French invasion of Egypt, the island of Perim was occupied by a British force, but after a few months it was again abandoned. In 1802 a treaty was concluded with the then ruler of Aden. About 1827 the idea of making it a coaling station was entertained:[2] and finally, outrages having been committed by its inhabitants on British subjects, the Sultan of Aden, at the beginning of 1838, undertook to sell the peninsula to Great Britain. He stipulated, however, that his authority over the people of Aden should be maintained after the cession, and to this the British Agent in charge of the negotiations declined to agree. While the matter was in this stage, an attempt was made by the Sultan's son to seize the person of the Agent, and other

of Aden hath in former times been a famous and strong place, but at present is ruinated and destroyed by the Turks'. This statement is certainly more in accordance with previous accounts than that of the Portuguese historian.

[1] See the notice of it in Lord Valentia's travels in the years 1802–1806.

[2] There was some doubt at first as to whether the coaling station should not be on Socotra instead of at Aden, and a force of Indian troops occupied the island for a time in 1835.

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causes of offence were given, in consequence of which it was decided to have recourse to force, and, accordingly, in January, 1839, Aden was attacked and taken by British ships acting under instructions from the Government of Bombay. In 1850 Aden was declared a free port. In 1854 the Kuria Muria islands were ceded by the Sultan of Muscat. In 1857 Perim was again occupied: in 1868 the peninsula of Little Aden, forming the Western arm of the harbour, and the little island of Sirah on the Eastern side of the main peninsula, were secured by purchase: and in 1882 the area of British territory in Arabia was doubled by buying up a tract inland, including the village of Shaikh Othman on the North-West. This last transaction placed the vicinity of the harbour in British hands, gave command of one of the sources of the water supply, i. e. the wells at Shaikh Othman, as well as of valuable salt-pits, and provided space for the overflowing population of Aden proper. In 1888 a further strip of territory between that district and the Little Aden peninsula was acquired.

Since 1876, the owner of Socotra, the Sultan of Kishn in Arabia, had been under agreement not to admit the interference of any foreign power in that island. In 1886 a further step was taken, and the island was placed more directly under a British protectorate. Lastly, treaties of friendship have from time to time been made or renewed, confirming British influence over the Arab tribes round Aden. The British sphere extends along the coast from Sheikh Murad, on the mainland opposite Perim, on the West to Ras Sair on the East. The boundaries of the Hinterland from Sheikh Murad to the River Bana in the North-East have recently been determined by an Anglo-Turkish Commission.

Administration, &c.

Politically Aden is, and has been ever since its first occupation by British forces, under the authority of the Government of Bombay. Its administration is in the hands

of a Political Resident, who is also usually commander of the garrison, and who has two Assistants.

For legal purposes, it is considered as part of the Presidency of Bombay. In 1864 a special act was passed by the Government of India to regulate the administration of justice in the settlement. Under this act the administration of criminal justice is vested in the court of the Resident, minor cases being tried by the Assistant Residents, the Cantonment Magistrate, and the officer commanding the Aden troop. Death sentences are subject to revision by the High Court at Bombay. The Indian criminal procedure code and the Indian penal code are followed, and the civil procedure is on the same lines as that of the Mofussil.

Area and Geography.

The total area of the settlement of Aden, exclusive of Perim, is 75 square miles, made up as follows:—Aden, 21; Shaikh Othman, 39; Little Aden, 15. It is therefore rather more than half the size of the Isle of Wight. Aden consists of two peninsulas, running out from the South coast of Arabia, and of a strip of territory connecting the two. The Eastern peninsula is Aden proper; the Western, Little Aden. They enclose between them a bay, known as Aden Back Bay, 8 miles broad from East to West, 4 miles deep from North to South. The entrance of the bay is rather more than 3 miles wide, and just inside the entrance, on the Eastern side, is Steamer Point, where the large ships call and which is about 4 miles from the town. Inside, the bay is divided by a spit of land into two parts. The inner bay, which contains several little islands, runs into the narrow neck of land, connecting the town and promontory of Aden with the mainland. The isthmus is only about 1,350 yards wide, and is nearly covered by the sea at high tide. Across it runs the aqueduct, which brings water into the settlement from the wells at Shaikh Othman: and, where it joins the mainland, is the creek known as Khor Maksar. On the

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Eastern side of the peninsula is the little fortified island of Sirah, connected with Aden by a causeway.

The peninsula of Aden consists mainly of the crater of an extinct volcano, within which the town is placed. The sides of the crater are for the most part precipitous, the highest rock rising to 1,776 feet, but there is a gap in the rocky side on the East, opposite the island of Sirah. The entrance into the crater from the isthmus is known as the Northern or main pass.

Climate.

Situated as Aden is in the heart of the tropics, and shut in by bare rocks, its climate is necessarily very hot; and, though not considered unhealthy, it tells after a while on European residents. The pleasantest time is during the prevalence of the North-East monsoon, from October to April: during the rest of the year the settlement in the crater is subject to the hot North wind, blowing from the Arabian desert.

Rainfall and water supply.

The average annual rainfall in the crater is about 3 inches. As much as 8 inches has fallen in the year; on the other hand, in some years there has been hardly any rain at all. The water for the settlement is supplied from various sources. There are some wells in the peninsula itself. From others, on the mainland, water is brought into Aden, partly in skins on camels' backs, partly by the aqueduct, which has been already mentioned[1] and which conducts the water from the wells at Shaikh Othman across the isthmus into tanks constructed to receive it. Condensers are also employed: and lastly there is the celebrated series of tanks framed to catch the occasional rains, dating back, it is supposed, from 600 A.D., mentioned by travellers at various times, and of late years to a great extent repaired. They are on the Western side of the town, and consist of a chain of reservoirs,

[1] This aqueduct must not be confused with the one built by the native sovereign of Yemen towards the end of the fifteenth century, the ruins of which still remain.

one above the other, so constructed as to intercept the drainage of the main ravine, into which most of the various gullies on the inner face of the crater converge. When rain falls, little is absorbed on the steep hard sides of the rocks; consequently from a comparatively small fall a large supply of water is collected. These tanks are one among many instances of the engineering capacity of Eastern races, and can only have been built to supply a city with a flourishing trade and a large population [1].

Population.

When the town was taken in 1839, the population had dwindled to some 6,000. According to the census of 1901, the numbers were 43,974, the males being more than double as many as th efemales.[2] The increase in the population in the ten years 1871–1881 was very large, due, no doubt, in great measure to the opening of the Suez Canal. Here, as at Gibraltar, over-population has been one of the main difficulties with which the Government has had to deal; and it has led, as already pointed out, to the acquisition of fresh territory outside the peninsula.

The main bulk of the inhabitants are Mohammedans, chiefly Arabs, or Somalis from the African coast: and Jews are also an important element in the population.

The garrison numbers about 2,000, the cantonments being in the crater, at Steamer Point, on the isthmus, and at Khor Maksar.

Trade, Finance, &c.

Aden practically produces nothing except pumice stone. Its supplies of food, fodder, fire-wood, and to a great extent water also, are imported by land [3] or sea; and its great trade is purely a transit trade.[4] It is not only the main coaling

[1] See what is said of the tanks in Ceylon, pp. 108–10.

[2] These numbers include the garrison and also the few residents at Perim.

[3] A description of the caravan routes from the interior to Aden is given in Hunter's *Account of Aden*.

[4] The tonnage of the vessels frequenting the port in 1903–4, was nearly 3,000,000, and the total value of imports and exports, omitting specie, was about Rs. 44,000,000 and Rs. 36,000,000 respectively.

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station for vessels passing up and down the Red Sea, but is also a place where Arabia and Africa, Europe and the East interchange their wares. European and Indian goods are imported and supplied to the Arabs and Somalis, while dyes[1], hides, Mocha coffee, ostrich feathers, shells, and other commodities are in turn exported.

Its trade grew rapidly when it was declared a free port in 1850, and the opening of the Suez Canal added enormously to it. Latterly, duties have been levied on spirits, wines, and arms. The proceeds of these duties, of the salt revenue, of stamps, of certain taxes, and of some minor receipts, are credited to India, either to the Imperial or to the Provincial Exchequer; but they represent only a very small proportion of the cost incurred by the Indian Government in maintaining the station. The up-keep of the harbour and its establishment is paid for by port dues; and there is a municipal fund, administered by the Resident and his Assistants, and supported by quit-rents, licenses, small fees and rates, and the sale of water from the wells in the peninsula.

The Indian silver coinage is current in the settlement.

Distances and General Summary.

Aden is rather over 1,300 miles from Suez, over 1,600 from Bombay, about 2,100 from Colombo, about 1,500 from Seychelles, about 2,400 from Mauritius, nearly 2,100 miles from Diego Garcia, and nearly 5,000 from the nearest point of Australia. It is connected by cable with all parts of the world. Like Gibraltar, it is one of the main gates on the high-roads of the world, held by the leading naval and commercial power. Like Gibraltar, though not in Africa it commands the African coast. As bare of products as any spot on the surface of the globe, its position makes it the scene of a vast transit trade. It has great historical interest, as having been in the past, as it is in the present, one of the meeting-places of the world: and its possession gives Great

[1] The *Commentaries of Albuquerque* mention the export of 'madder' as the principal source of revenue of the king of Aden.

Britain a foothold in the land which was the birth-place of Mohammedanism. CHAPTER I.

The little island of Perim[1], the Arab name of which is Mayun, lies right in the middle of the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, about $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles from the nearest point of Arabia, and about 10 from the nearest point of Africa. Its greatest length is rather over 3 miles, its average breadth about $1\frac{3}{4}$, and its total area about 5 square miles. It is little more than a rock, bare and waterless, though goats manage to subsist in it upon the coarse grass and stunted shrubs. It consists of a series of low hills, running up to slightly over 200 feet, and surrounding a fine harbour on the South-West side, secure in all weathers, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, about the same in breadth, and with an entrance 860 yards wide. *Perim.*

On the East of the harbour are the fort and station for the small detachment of Indian troops which garrisons the rock. All their food is brought from the outside: they are supplied with water by condensers: and they are relieved, if possible, every few months. There is a coaling depôt on the island belonging to the Perim Coal Company, and various cable companies have stations there. The island is administered by an officer under the control of the Resident at Aden.

The island of Socotra lies off Cape Gardafui, at a distance of more than 150 miles from that Cape, and about 230 from the nearest point of Arabia. It is rather less than 100 miles long from East to West, about 30 miles broad, and is said to have an area of about 1,400 square miles.[2] It consists of a strip of land along the coast, and of a mountainous interior, with peaks, of which the loftiest (Mount Haghier) is nearly 5,000 feet in height, and fertile valleys, giving good pasturage for cows, sheep, and goats. The principal village *Socotra.*

[1] Perim attained a certain amount of notoriety in the seventeenth century as the headquarters of the famous pirate Avery.

[2] These figures, like all others connected with Socotra, are of very doubtful accuracy.

SECTION II.

in the island in former times was Zoko, which is referred to as the capital in Portuguese accounts of the sixteenth century. It is now in ruins, and its place has been taken by Tamarida (from the Arabic 'tamar' a date-fruit) or Hadibo, which lies on a bay on the North coast. On the extreme West of the island is the poor harbour of Kalenzia, and there are a great number of smaller villages, many of them containing only about half a dozen houses. The population is estimated at 12,000.[1] Around the coast they are a mixed breed[2], containing Arab, Somali, and even Portuguese elements, the mixture of race being no doubt due in some measure to the pirates who long frequented the island. Inland the inhabitants are apparently of quite a different origin, speaking a distinct language; and here, as elsewhere, the mountains seemed to have preserved the old native race. Christianity has long died out, even in the debased form in which it was found by Albuquerque and his followers; and the inhabitants are either Mohammedans or Pagans.

The island is said to be very fertile and to contain great numbers of date palms, aloes, frankincense, and myrrh and other gum-producing trees, including the dragon's-blood tree, the resin of which once formed a considerable article of commerce. The trade in it is now, however, practically extinct, and no attempt appears to have been made in modern times to turn the myrrh and frankincense to profit.[3] The inhabitants cultivate practically nothing except a little tobacco and cotton, living mainly on dates and the produce of their numerous flocks and herds. Practically the only article of export is ghee (clarified butter), which is sent to Aden.

[1] These are the figures given in the Report of the Census of the British Empire in 1901. They are a pure guess and other authorities estimate the population as low as 2,000 or 3,000.

[2] The author of the *Periplus* speaks of the population as scanty in numbers, inhabiting the North side of the island, and consisting of a mixture of foreigners, Arabs, Indians, and Greeks.

[3] Socotra has been identified with To Nuter, which appears in Egyptian inscriptions as a great source of myrrh and frankincense.

The government of the island is carried on by a deputy of the Sultan of Kishn, residing at Tamarida.

The Kuria Muria islands.

The Kuria Muria islands are five small islands in the bay of that name on the South coast of Arabia, which finds a place in the *Commentaries of Albuquerque*, having been discovered by the Portuguese in 1503. They were ceded to Great Britain by the Imam of Muscat in 1854 for the purpose of landing the Red Sea cable.

They contain deposits of guano, and shortly after their cession a licence was issued to a private company to raise and export guano from three of the islands. Only a small amount however was actually exported.

BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO ADEN, &c.

In addition to the annual administrative reports, a good account of Aden will be found in the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, s. v.

The early history can be gathered from various volumes of the Hakluyt series: from Col. YULE's *Marco Polo*, which also gives an account of Socotra; from MCCRINDLE's translation of the *Periplus Maris Erythraei*; and from PLAYFAIR's *History of Arabia Felix or Yemen* (Bombay, 1859), included in the selections from the *Records of the Bombay Government*, No. 49. The standard work on Aden, however, is *An Account of the British Settlement of Aden in Arabia*, by Capt. HUNTER, 1877 (Trübner and Co.). A full account of Perim is given in Lieut. KING's *Descriptive and Historical Account of the British outpost of Perim* (Bombay, 1877), included in the selections from the *Records of the Bombay Government*, No. 149. The *Sailing Directory for the Indian Ocean*, by A. G. FINDLAY, contains much useful geographical information on the various British dependencies in that ocean. An article by Mr. THEODORE BENT in the *Nineteenth Century* for June, 1897, gives a good account of Socotra.

Section II

CHAPTER II

BRITISH SOMALILAND

Section II.

The Horn of Africa.

To the South and West of the Gulf of Aden lies the 'Horn of Africa', a district in the shape of an irregular triangle with its apex at Cape Gardafui. Bounded on the North by the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden, on the East by the Indian Ocean, and on the West and South-West by Abyssinia and the British East Africa Protectorate, this district comprises an area of approximately 400,000 square miles, or about twice the size of France, which is divided into British, French, Italian, and Abyssinian spheres of influence.

Inhabitants.

The country is inhabited by a number of tribes, mostly of nomadic habits, who bear the general name of Somalis, and from whom it derives its name of Somaliland.[1] The Somalis, who are Mohammedans by religion, claim to be of Arab descent, but there is no doubt that they were primarily a Hamitic people, members of that race which includes among its other branches the ancient Egyptians and the Berbers of North-West Africa. The Hamitic stock has, however, been much modified by intermixture with the negroid races of the South, and with the Arabs of the opposite coast. The Somali language is said to have strong affinities with

[1] It is stated in most books of reference that the general name of the tribes is Somal and the native name of the country Bar-es-Somal, but General Swayne, the late Commissioner of the Somaliland Protectorate, writes: 'The word Somal is unknown to Somalis. It is an old error that has been repeated *ad infinitum*. The people of the country know themselves as Somalis, and Bar-es-Somal was Burton's old name as given to him by Arabs, not by Somalis. Not a single Somali would ever talk of his people as Somal but always as Somali.'

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that of the Gallas, who inhabit the country to the West of Somaliland and are also of Hamitic origin.

History.

Little is known as to the early history of the country. It was known to the Egyptians as Punt or Pûanît, and the Egyptian records contain many references to expeditions made for the purpose of procuring the myrrh and frankincense, for which the country has always been famous, and which obtained for it its Roman name of 'Regio Thurifera' or 'Aromatifera.'

Christianity, which was introduced into Abyssinia in the fourth century, appears to have spread to Somaliland, where traces of the monastic system have been found, and it would seem that about this period the country was under the sovereignty of Abyssinia, since the King of Axum is said to have crossed from Zeila to Aden in 523, when undertaking the conquest of the Yemen.

Influx of Arabs.

The rise of Mohammed in the seventh century was probably the cause of the introduction of the Arabic element. Somali tradition asserts that their race is descended from noble Arabs who were driven from their country by internal dissensions, and from genealogies which are recited it would appear that this event took place some twelve or thirteen centuries ago.[1] As has already been observed, this claim to Arab descent cannot be substantiated; but it is likely enough that the Arabic strain, which is undoubtedly strong in the Somali race, especially in the North and East, owes its origin to an intermixture with the natives of Arabian tribes flying from the conquests of Mohammed and his followers.

The date of the introduction of the Mohammedan religion, now universal except among the outcast tribes of Midgans and Yebirs[2], is unknown, and the history of Somaliland is practically a blank until the early years of the sixteenth century, when the Turks established themselves at Zeila.

[1] See Swayne's *Seventeen Trips through Somaliland*, pp. 18 et seqq.

[2] The religion of the Yebirs and Midgans is a kind of fetish worship full of old-world superstitions, of spirits in graves, witches, &c., but

SECTION II.

The Turks at Zeila.

Their settlement there was used as a base for attacks on the commerce between Europe and India, and accordingly it was burnt by the Portuguese in 1516.

Practically nothing is known of the state of Somaliland during the next three hundred years, and it is only in the nineteenth century that its history really begins. In 1827 the captain of a British man-of-war entered into an agreement with the Sheikh of the Habr Awal tribe, which provided for the succour of shipwrecked crews; and after the acquisition of Aden in 1839 the opposite shore naturally attracted increased attention. In 1840 the Governor of Zeila signed a treaty with the East India Company, by which he bound himself not to cede any part of the adjoining coast to a foreign power[1], and a few years later other treaties were signed by the coast tribes, which included provisions for the suppression of the slave trade. During these years the country was explored by several expeditions under Burton, Speke, and others.

Egyptian occupation

In 1870, the Khedive of Egypt, having purchased the vague rights of sovereignty claimed by the Sultan of Turkey, established garrisons in the towns on the North coast and in the country of Harrar to the West. The Egyptian occupation lasted until 1884, when, in consequence of the Mahdist revolt, the garrisons were withdrawn. The abandoned territories were almost immediately occupied by other Powers. Detachments from the garrison at Aden were placed in Zeila and Berbera, and treaties were made by Great Britain with nearly all the tribes now under British control, a protectorate over the Somali coast being proclaimed in 1885; the French occupied Obok in 1884, and in the following year extended

Partition of Somaliland.

many members of these tribes have been converted and are strict Mohammedans.

[1] Under this treaty the little island of Aubad or Eibat, near Zeila, was ceded to Great Britain. In the same year the Musa, Mushah or Mashah islands and the islet of Bab in the Bay of Tajoura were acquired from the Sultan of that district. They were in 1888 transferred to France by the agreement which defined the British and French spheres in Somaliland.

their influence over part of the neighbouring coast; the Abyssinians advanced from the West, and the Italians acquired the greater part of the Eastern coast. The limits of the spheres of influence of each of these powers have now been definitely settled by various Conventions.

British sphere.

The part of Somaliland under British control is divided into two sections, one on the North coast and one on the South. The latter is part of British East Africa[1], the former is the British Somaliland Protectorate.

British Somaliland. Area.

British Somaliland at first comprised an area of some 75,000 square miles but, owing to the cession of some districts to Abyssinia in 1897, its extent is now only 68,000 square miles, rather more than twice the size of Ireland.

Boundaries.

The coast line, which is about 440 miles in length, extends from Bandar Ziada on the 49th degree of East longitude, which there forms the boundary between British and Italian territory, to Loyiada which lies about half-way between Zeila and the French port of Jibouti. From Bandar Ziada the boundary runs due South along the 49th degree of longitude until it reaches the 9th parallel of North latitude. It then turns to the South-West, and is prolonged in a straight line for about 100 miles to the intersection of the 48th degree with the 8th parallel of latitude, which it then follows due West to the 47th degree of longitude. So far British Somaliland is conterminous with the Italian protectorate, but at this point it meets the Abyssinian sphere. The boundary is extended in a straight line for about 250 miles to the North and West to Arran Arrhe in longitude 44° E. and latitude 9° N. From this point it runs more directly North-West until it reaches French territory at Abassouen. At Abassouen it turns rather to the East of North and marches with the French protectorate for a distance of about 70 miles, finally coming to the coast at Loyiada.

[1] See vol. iv of this series, p. 140.

SECTION II. *Physical geography.*

The part of the protectorate which lies nearest to the coast is a plain varying in extent from some 50 miles in the neighbourhood of Zeila to a few hundred yards near the Eastern border. The greater part of this district is a sandy or stony desert, sparsely covered in places with mimosa and thorn-bushes; but near Zeila it opens out into a great grass plain, intersected by river beds, which are waterless in the dry season. To the South lies the range of the maritime mountains. They are of limestone formation, barren and precipitous, and rise to a height of some 1,500 feet. Beyond them are undulating plains, in parts stony and semi-desert, sprinkled like the maritime plain with mimosa and thorn-bushes, in parts covered with high grass or thick jungle. Further to the South again rises the Gorlis range of mountains, the highest peaks of which are about 7,000 feet in height. The slopes are covered with forests of cedar and with a species of aloe. In the Eastern part myrrh and frankincense trees are found in great abundance. This range, which is some 35 miles South of Berbera, slopes gradually towards the South, and the cedar forests give place to grassy or thorny plains, from 10 to 30 miles in width. Beyond these plains, which are known as Ogo, is the Haud, a great elevated, waterless plateau from 100 to 250 miles across, which includes large strips of open, grassy plains, mingled with semi-desert country and with almost impenetrable thorny jungle. Only part of the Haud is in British territory, the remainder being within the Abyssinian sphere, except for a small portion on the East, which is included in the Italian protectorate. The Haud is probably the most valuable part of Somaliland as the surrounding tribes are dependent on its pastures, which are considered the best in the country, for the summer grazing of their flocks and herds. Its importance is recognized in the Anglo-Abyssinian treaty of 1897, which provides for freedom of access without distinction of tribe to all that part of the Haud which is included within the

spheres of influence of the two nations. Gum-arabic and myrrh trees abound in the Haud along the Southern border of the British sphere, especially at Gunda-Liba. CHAPTER II.

Climate. The climate of the maritime region is dry, and so hot in summer that the majority of the population retire to the interior for the summer months. The annual rainfall averages only about 4 or 5 inches. In the higher regions of the interior[1] the temperature has a greater range, varying from about 40° to 90°, and the rainfall is estimated at about 30 inches in the year.

Health. No statistics of the health of the population are available, but it appears that the natives suffer chiefly from diseases of the respiratory organs, due to dust and wind, and from small-pox, of which there have been several severe epidemics in recent years. In 1889, 2,000 deaths are said to have occurred from this disease in Berbera, and again in 1904–5 it caused more than 800 deaths in the Somali quarter of that town.[2] Malaria is not infrequent among Europeans, but it is not so common in the British protectorate as in other parts of the country.

Population. The principal tribes in the British sphere are the Isa, Gadabursi, Habr Awal, Habr Gerhajis, Habr Toljaala, Dolbahanta, and Warsangli. Members of the outcast tribes of Midgans, Tomals, and Yebirs are scattered throughout the country; they are respectively hunters, smiths, and leather-workers.

Owing to the migratory habits of the people, no trustworthy statistics of the population are to be obtained, but the total number of inhabitants is believed to be about 300,000.

[1] General Swayne writes: 'At Daraan (32 miles only from Berbera) the range of temperature on some of the hottest days of the summer was between 58° at night and 78° in the shade by day. It is a splendid natural sanatorium, finer and healthier than any I know of anywhere, healthier than Egypt and drier than the Delta.'

[2] The total number of deaths from small-pox in 1904–5 in the whole country has been estimated at 10,000.

SECTION II. *Government.*

From 1884 to 1898 the Government of the protectorate was under the charge of the Resident at Aden, but in the latter year it was placed under the control of the Foreign Office and a British Commissioner was appointed. In 1905 it was transferred to the Colonial Office. The headquarters of the Commissioner are at Berbera, and the actual administration scarcely extends beyond the towns on the coast, the tribes of the interior being left very much to themselves except when they apply to the British Commissioner to settle their disputes. Recently a few political officers have been appointed with the object of organizing the tribes and bringing them more under British control, and the Commissioner now spends a considerable part of the year in camp in the interior.

The military force of the protectorate consists of a battalion of the King's African Rifles, which was formerly composed of Somalis but is now being recruited from India [1], and of a roughly organized militia formed from the Somali tribes.

The law administered in the coast towns is mainly that of British India, modified and supplemented by Ordinances which are issued by the Commissioner, and are subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

Towns.

By far the greater part of the inhabitants are nomads with no fixed homes, and outside the coast towns the only permanent settlements [2] are a few villages, founded by Mohammedan Mullahs, who, in consequence of the respect in which they are held, are not exposed to the raids which have always formed the principal occupation and diversion of the wandering tribes. The principal towns are Berbera, Bulhar,

[1] The King's African Rifles are a force of six battalions, formed from the native troops of the East and Central African Protectorates.

[2] In several parts of the interior there exist ruins of considerable towns founded by the Mohammedan dynasty which afterwards occupied Harrar, with remains of well constructed reservoirs and dams for the storage of water.

and Zeila. The chief town and the seat of government is Berbera, which lies directly opposite Aden at a distance of 150 miles. Its origin is ascribed to the Ptolemies of Egypt, and it is said to derive its name from the *βάρβαροι*, among whom it was established. It was occupied by the Egyptians in 1870, and by Great Britain in 1884. The town is divided into two parts, the official and the native quarters, which are three-quarters of a mile apart. Since the British occupation harbour works, hospitals, and barracks have been constructed, and an aqueduct has been laid to bring water from the hills about seven miles away. Berbera is the only thoroughly sheltered haven on the South side of the Gulf of Aden. CHAPTER II. *Berbera.*

The population of the town in the trading season, November to April, is about 30,000, and falls to about one-sixth of that number in the hot weather.

The bulk of the trade is with Aden, with which there is a weekly steamer service.

About 45 miles to the West of Berbera is the open roadstead of Bulhar, which is practically useless during the monsoons. The town is conveniently situated for the caravan trade from the interior, and in the trading season the population rises to 10,000. The permanent inhabitants number about 3,000. *Bulhar.*

Zeila, about 50 miles to the North-West of Bulhar and about 15 hours by steamer from Aden, is built on a narrow spit running out into the Gulf. It has a good sheltered anchorage, but only vessels of very shallow draft can approach within $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles of the shore. The population of the town in the trading season is about 15,000. The trade of Zeila appears to be falling off in consequence of the opening of the railway from the French port of Jibouti to Harrar, which has diverted the traffic from the interior. *Zeila.*

East of Berbera, customs stations have been established at Karam, Heis, and Las Khorai, the capital of the Warsangli

SECTION II.

country. The latter place is the chief centre of trade in the Eastern part of the protectorate and bids fair to rival Bulhar in importance.

Education.

Government schools exist at Berbera, Bulhar, and Zeila, but the education given is confined to reading and writing in Arabic. The attendance is small, and the pupils are mostly children of the local Arab and Indian merchants.

Finances.

The protectorate is not yet self-supporting, the excess of expenditure over revenue being provided for by grants from the British Exchequer. These grants have amounted in the last five years in all to about £136,000.[1] The revenue is almost wholly derived from customs duties. The currency is that of India.

Trade.

Practically the only industry of the Somali tribes is the raising of live-stock, and the main exports are sheep, goats, cattle, hides, and ghee, with a few camels and ponies. Ostrich-feathers, gum, myrrh, and aloe fibre are also exported. The exports go chiefly to Aden, which draws the main part of its food-supplies from the Somali coast, but there is some direct trade with India and the Persian Gulf. The goods are brought down from the interior in camel-caravans and shipped from the coast ports.

The principal imports are cloth, mostly of American origin, and rice from India. The value of imports in 1904–5 was Rs. 4,916,202, and that of exports Rs. 4,378,832. The trade has decreased in recent years, partly owing to the diversion of trade from Zeila to Jibouti, to which reference has already been made, but to a far greater extent on account of the internal disturbances caused by the rising of the Mullah.

The Mullah.

The Mullah, or, as he prefers to be called, the Sayed Mohamed bin Abdilleh Hassan, a Mohammedan leader of the type of the Mahdi, first came into prominence in the latter

[1] No account is here taken of the cost of the military operations of recent years which was borne by Imperial funds.

years of the nineteenth century, when he established himself in the interior of Somaliland and began to preach a Holy War against the Christians. His energies were at first directed against the Abyssinians, but his followers soon began to raid the tribes in the British sphere, and accordingly in 1901 a joint expedition was made against him by an Abyssinian force from Harrar and a force operating from the British protectorate. The latter force, composed of raw Somali levies, raised by Colonel Swayne[1], subsequently Commissioner of the protectorate, and commanded by British officers, encountered the Mullah in British territory, defeated him and drove him across the border into the Italian sphere. In a month, he was back again in British territory, but was again defeated with heavy loss and driven back over the Italian border.

A further raid in 1902 occasioned another expedition, in which the Somali levies were strengthened by a force of the King's African Rifles. After operations extending over some months, a well-contested action was fought in October at Erigo in the Italian territory, in which, owing to a stampede of camels, the British force lost a Maxim gun. The British column retired on its base shortly after the action, but the Mullah, whose followers had lost heavily, withdrew into the interior. In 1903 a further expedition was dispatched against him, consisting of Somali levies, a detachment of the King's African Rifles, some Indian troops, and some British and Boer mounted infantry, acting in combination with an Abyssinian expedition. One column operated from the Italian coast town of Obbia, while another advanced from the British border. In this campaign the Mullah obtained two partial successes. On the 19th of April a flying column of two hundred Indian and African troops, forming part of the Obbia force, was practically annihilated at Gumburru, two

[1] Afterwards Brigadier-General, and now Governor of British Honduras.

SECTION II.

Maxims being lost, and a few days later the Northern force was fiercely attacked near Danop and was compelled to retire, after inflicting severe loss on the enemy. The British forces then fell back to their base, but after they had received reinforcements bringing their numbers up to 7,000 men, operations were resumed, and in January, 1904, the Mullah was heavily defeated at Jidballi with a loss of 1,000 men. Since that event he has given little trouble, and has by an agreement with Italy been allowed to settle within Italian territory.

General.

It is still too early, especially in view of the disturbances which have filled so large a space of the time which has elapsed since the British sphere of influence was delimited, to form any opinion of the potential value of the protectorate to Great Britain. It is possible that the uplands of the interior may prove suitable for permanent colonization by Europeans, and that, as the country becomes more settled, an important trade may be established through the coast ports with the interior, particularly with Abyssinia, which is said to be especially accessible from the British protectorate. At present, perhaps, its main interest lies in the abundance of wild animals, which makes it a paradise for big-game shooters. Even, however, if the country should prove to be valueless for commercial purposes, its position opposite Aden at the mouth of the Red Sea gives to the coast-line, at any rate, and to the port of Berbera a value as a British dependency.

Moreover, inasmuch as Somaliland is a Mohammedan country, within comparatively easy reach of Mecca, where Mohammedans of all lands congregate, British dealings with this territory have an interest beyond its borders for all the Mohammedan people within the British Empire. Its fortunes are linked to those of British East Africa, and its future cannot be determined on local considerations alone.

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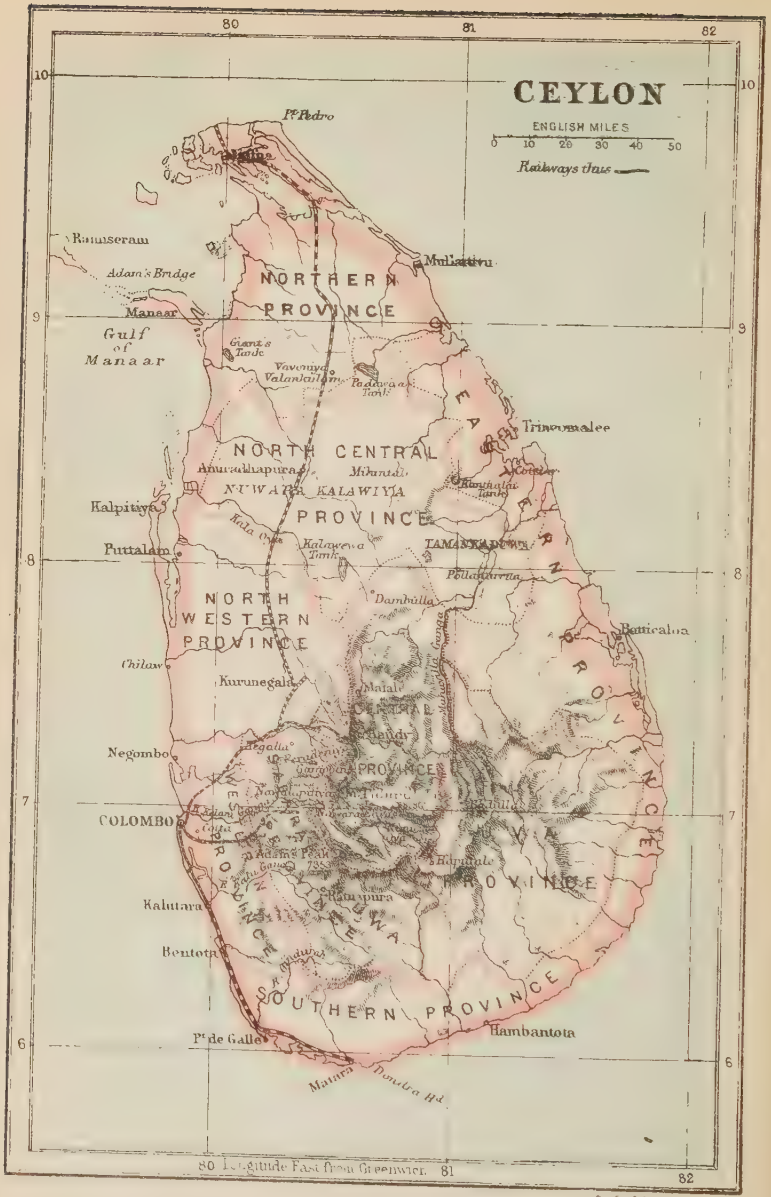
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Section III

CEYLON AND THE MALDIVE ISLANDS

Name.

The traditional native name for Ceylon is Lanka[1]; but in very early times it was given in Sanskrit the alternative name of Sinhala-dvîpa, or island of the Sinhala. The origin of the latter name is disputed, but the explanation which is generally regarded as the most plausible is that given in the Pali chronicle called the *Mahawansa*. 'By reason of the King Sihabahu having slain the lion (siha), his sons and descendants are called Sihala (the lion-slayers); Lanka having been conquered by a Sihala (i. e. the King Wijayo)... it obtained the name Sihala.'[2] The Greek name for the island was Taprobane[3], a modification of which occurs in the mediaeval *Mappa Mundi* now in Hereford Cathedral, the inscription being 'Taphana insula Indie subjacens....'

Sinhala-dvîpa developed into Serendivi in Ammianus Marcellinus. Then came the Sarandib or Serendib of the Arabs, and 'dib' merely signifying island, Saran, the distinctive name, became, by the interchange of l for r, Sailan

[1] For the meaning of 'Lanka' (Sanskrit), see under 'Lunka' in the invaluable *Glossary of Anglo-Indian Words* by Yule and Burnell.

[2] The Portuguese historian, Ribeyro, has an ingenious theory, which is that the Sinhalese owe their origin to an intermixture of Chinese settlers with Tamil exiles called 'Galas', and that their name is derived from the combination of the names of these two elements into 'Chingalas'. See Mr. Arunachalam's report on the Ceylon census for 1901 for a discussion of the whole subject.

[3] Said to be a corruption of Pali words meaning 'copper-palmed', and to refer to the colour of the soil. For 'Taphana' see the *Essay on the Hereford Mappa Mundi*, by Bevan and Phillott, published by Messrs. Stanford, 1874. In the *Periplus* the island is said to have been called 'by the ancients' Taprobane.

SECTION III.

or Seilan in the writings of the mediaeval travellers. Thence came the final development of the French Ceylan and the English Ceylon.

History.

Classical notices.

Among classical writers Onesicritos is said to be the first to notice Ceylon. He was the chief pilot of the fleet which in B.C. 326 Alexander the Great sent from the mouth of the Indus to the head of the Persian Gulf; but nothing of his writings has been preserved beyond quotations by later authors. In the reign of the Roman Emperor Claudius, A.D. 41–54, an embassy was sent to Rome by the King of Ceylon, and an account of the island is given by Pliny the elder, who derived his information from the members of the embassy. Three centuries later, in the reign of Julian, A.D. 362, it is recorded by Ammianus Marcellinus that ambassadors arrived at Rome 'ab usque Divis et Serendivis', while the *Geography* of Ptolemy of Alexandria, written in the second century A.D., contains a description of Taprobane sufficiently full and accurate to prove that the coasts of the island had by that time been visited and explored by traders, and that Ceylon might thenceforward be included within the limits of the known world. The last Greek writer who mentions the island is Cosmas Indicopleustes, who wrote in the sixth century A.D., his account being derived from information received from a Greek trader named Sopater, who had visited it. The main error of all the classical writers who refer to Taprobane is a greatly exaggerated idea of the size of the island.

Position of Ceylon.

A reference to the map of Asia shows, first, that Ceylon is geographically more or less an appendage of India, and would naturally be peopled from the great peninsula; and secondly, that it lies, very roughly speaking, half-way between Arabia on the West and China on the East. These two main features in the geography of the island give the clue to its early history.

The Singhalese.

The connexion with India must necessarily have been of

the closest from early times, and the island figures largely in Hindu tradition, the greater part of the scene of the Sanskrit epic of the *Ramayana* being laid in the island, but the first authentic historical record is connected with the coming of the Sinhalese under their leader Wijayo. The date assigned to this event is 543 B.C. According to the native chronicles, Wijayo was a member of a royal family, ruling in the Ganges valley, whose misdeeds had led to his expulsion from his home. He arrived in Ceylon with 700 followers and having, with the assistance of an aboriginal princess, whom he married and afterwards deserted for a Tamil princess from South India, conquered the inhabitants, who are called in the chronicles Yakkhas (devils) or Nagas[1] and whose descendants are probably to be found in the wild 'Veddahs', of whom a few thousands still exist in Ceylon, established himself as king, his capital being at Tamananuwara, his original landing-place.[2]

The nationality of the successful invaders is still in dispute. Both Indian and local traditions affirm that they came from the Ganges valley and were therefore of Aryan race, but other theories, based on the forms of the Sinhalese language, suggest that they were really allied to the Dravidian peoples of Southern India. The problem is probably insoluble, but it is not clear that the Dravidian element in the language is greater than can be accounted for by the constant intercourse and intermixture of the Sinhalese with the Tamils, and the general view is that the language is in the main of an Aryan character. The Sinhalese race, as it exists at present, is certainly of a mixed character, containing both Dravidian and Aryan and possibly also Malay and Mongolian elements, while there is doubtless some admixture

[1] Naga = snake. The meaning is doubtless that the aborigines of Ceylon, like many other primitive tribes, were snake-worshippers.

[2] Tamananuwara has been located either near Puttalam on the Western coast or on the South-East coast at the mouth of the Kirinde-oya—in either case a curious landing-place for invaders from the North.

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of the blood of the aboriginal inhabitants. In any case, whatever their origin, the Sinhalese were a people of agriculturists. They brought with them into Ceylon the system of village communities, which is still so important a factor in the social system of the island; and they constructed throughout the land the magnificent series of tanks and reservoirs for purposes of irrigation, the restoration of which is one of the main objects of the present government. They brought with them, too, the reverence for caste, which has ever had so overpowering and deadening an effect among Hindus; but they did not import the Buddhist religion, which is professed by the Sinhalese of the present day, Wijayo and his immediate successors being adherents of the Brahminical faith.

Buddhism.

The date assigned to the introduction of Buddhism into Ceylon is 307 B.C., and the planting of the sacred Bo-tree[1] at Anuradhapura, at that time the capital of the island, as the centre-point of the national religion is supposed to date from 288 B.C. From that time the new religion spread through the island, marking its progress by the construction of numberless monasteries and dagobas[2]. It breathed a spirit of toleration. It set itself, in theory at any rate, in opposition to the rigorous laws of caste as prescribed by the Brahmin religion. It promoted irrigation and agriculture. But at the same time it weighted the island with a numerous, powerful, and richly endowed priesthood.

The Tamils.

In the third century B.C. the pressure of the Malabars[3] or Tamils from Southern India began to be felt in Ceylon.

[1] The Bo-tree, which still exists and is an object of the greatest veneration on the part of the Buddhists, is said to have sprung from a branch of the tree beneath which Gautama was sitting when he attained his Buddhahood.

[2] The name 'dagoba' is, according to Col. Yule's *Glossary*, 'applied to any dome-like Buddhist shrine.'

[3] Tennent points out that the 'Malabar' invaders came from a much wider area than the part of India now known as Malabar (vol. i, pt. 3, chap. 5, p. 353, *note*).

They were introduced in the first instance as mercenaries by the Sinhalese kings; and, as in other countries under the same circumstances, the servants gradually became masters. SECTION III.

In 237 B.C. two leaders of Malabar mercenaries made themselves supreme for twenty years. Shortly afterwards, in 205 B.C., a Malabar invader, Elala by name, seized the royal power and ruled ably and well for over forty years, until he was slain in a revolution, which again placed a Sinhalese king on the throne. From that time onward the island was periodically overrun from India, in B.C. 103, in A.D. 110, and in A.D. 433.

From the end of the eleventh to the beginning of the thirteenth century A.D. there was a brilliant revival of the Sinhalese power, chiefly due to the ability of the King Prakrama Bahu; but, with this exception, the history of Ceylon from 500 to 1,500 A.D. is a history of internal weakness and foreign invasion. The Malabars permanently occupied the Jaffna peninsula and the Northern part of the island. The Sinhalese were driven South towards the mountain districts; and their capital was removed from Anuradhapura to Pollanarrua, and from Pollanarrua to Kurunegala, to Gampola, to Kandy, and finally to Cotta[1]. Cotta, a few miles from Colombo, was the last resting-place of an expiring dynasty, when the Portuguese landed in the island in the early years of the sixteenth century.

Ceylon and China.

But, while the main stream of the early history of Ceylon flowed directly from India, other influences reached the island from the East and West. Community of religion connected it with China. Chinese merchants and travellers appear at an early date to have visited it overland, and at a later date Chinese trading vessels frequented its shores.

[1] Writing in 1685, the Portuguese Ribeyro says, 'Ceylon is said to have seven kingdoms', exclusive of the Malabar kingdom at Jaffna. He goes on to say, 'The most powerful of its former princes was the king of Cotta, whom all the others revered as their emperor.' The king of Cotta, therefore, was the representative of the old Sinhalese dynasty.

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Official intercourse between the two countries seems to have begun towards the end of the fourth century A.D.; various embassies passed from one to the other, and for the first half of the fifteenth century Ceylon was recognized as a tributary vassal of China, as a result of a Chinese expedition which dethroned the king and carried him into captivity in China.

The Arabs.

As the Chinese traders came up from the East round the Malay Peninsula, so, from early times, the Arabs came down from the West along the Malabar coast of India; and Galle and Colombo became centre-points for the trade from either quarter. From the tenth to the fifteenth century the trade of the island appears to have been almost wholly in Arab hands. The Arabs brought with them in due course the Mohammedan religion, and their connexion with the island has remained unbroken. Their descendants, the Moors as they are called, still form a considerable proportion of the coast population, though mainly on the Eastern side—the farthest removed from Arabia; and, at the present day, the Mohammedans are among the most enterprising merchants at all the trading centres of Ceylon. One of the earliest mediaeval travellers from the West to Ceylon was Ibn Batuta, the Moor of Tangier, who left a long and interesting account of his pilgrimage to Adam's Peak in 1344.

Mediaeval travellers to Ceylon.

Ceylon was visited in the Middle Ages by various European travellers, hailing principally from the Italian cities. The most celebrated of these earlier visitors to Ceylon was the Venetian, Marco Polo, whose wanderings in the East extended over the years 1271 to 1295. Among his successors were John de Marignolli, the Franciscan friar of Florence; Conti, like Marco Polo, a citizen of Venice; the Genoese, Hieronymo di Santo Stefano; and Varthema of Bologna, who visited the island in 1505, shortly before the first Portuguese vessels reached its shores.[1]

[1] See Col. Yule's *Marco Polo*, 2 vols. 1871 (2nd edit. 1875); and the

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The Portuguese.

The Portuguese arrived in Ceylon in 1505.[1] In that year Lorenzo de Almeyda, son of the first Viceroy of India, was accidentally carried to Galle. He found the trade of the island in the hands of the Moors, who naturally resented any European intrusion upon their monopoly. In 1517 Soarez, the successor of Albuquerque, established a factory at Colombo; and in no long time the Portuguese, taking advantage of native feuds and dissensions, gained a foothold at Galle, Kalutara, Negombo, Manaar, and elsewhere; and, by a succession of fortresses, acquired absolute control over the coasting trade. The kings of Cotta, the nominal sovereigns of Ceylon, became their dependents. Christianity was spread in high places by Portuguese gold and Portuguese arms, and with all the savage bigotry of the time the most magnificent temples of Buddhism and the most venerated relics were ruthlessly destroyed. When the last of the legitimate kings of Ceylon died in 1597, he bequeathed, or was asserted to have bequeathed, his dominions to Philip II, then King of Portugal as well as Spain. Upon this bequest, in the main, rested the Portuguese title to the sovereignty of the island. But, though in 1617 Jaffna, the stronghold of the Malabars, was taken, the invaders' authority extended only over the low-lying districts; among the mountains in the centre of the island, the Kandyans still maintained their independence.

The Dutch.

Even before Jaffna had been taken, the Dutch had already appeared on the scene. Ever dogging the footsteps of the Portuguese in the Eastern seas, they were yet ever careful to avoid collision as far as possible with their powerful rivals. Accordingly their earliest visits were to the Eastern side of the island, the first Dutch ship anchoring at Batticaloa in 1602. The new-comers were welcomed by the Kandyan

following volumes of the Hakluyt Society: *Cathay*, ed. by Col. Yule; *Varthema*, ed. by Dr. Badger; *India in the Fifteenth Century*, by R. H. Major.

[2] Some accounts say 1507.

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king as allies against the Portuguese, and in 1612 they were allowed to build a fort at Cottiar on the bay of Trincomalee, which was, however, almost immediately burnt by the Portuguese.

In 1638 a Dutch fleet was dispatched to Ceylon with the definite intention of driving the Portuguese out of the island. Batticaloa was taken in that year; Galle and Negombo in 1640; Colombo in 1656; and Jaffna, the last point in Ceylon to be held by the Portuguese, as it was the last to be taken by them, in 1658. From that date the Dutch were supreme in Ceylon at every point outside the mountains of the Central province, until in their turn they gave way to the English.

The Portuguese and Dutch bore rule in Ceylon for almost the same number of years; but the Portuguese left a more distinct mark on the island than was left by their successors. Portuguese names[1] are more common than Dutch; the Eurasians are mainly of Portuguese descent; and more converts were made by the Roman Catholic Church than by Dutch Protestantism. The one great legacy of the Netherlands to Ceylon was the Roman-Dutch law, which is still, in a modified form, the law of the land.

The English.

Engrossed in the work of securing and extending their Indian possessions, the English sent no force to Ceylon till 1782, when Trincomalee was temporarily occupied by Sir Hector Munro. In the autumn of 1795, the Netherlands having become a dependency of France, Lord Hobart, the Governor of Madras, sent a second expedition to Ceylon; and early in 1796 the whole of the Dutch possessions in the island were formally ceded to Great Britain, the cession being confirmed by the Peace of Amiens in 1802.

The Sinhalese at first sided with the English from enmity

[1] Many persons who bear Portuguese names are of pure Sinhalese extraction, their ancestors having adopted the names of their Portuguese sponsors on their conversion to Christianity.

to the Dutch, just as a century and a half before they had sided with the Dutch against the Portuguese. But no sooner was the struggle at an end, than the new-comers became in their turn objects of suspicion and distrust to the native population. The sudden change of administration, and the introduction of the revenue system of Madras, led to an outbreak in 1797. In consequence, the obnoxious arrangements were promptly reversed, the Indian officials were removed, and Ceylon was separated from India and constituted a Crown colony. The course of events, however, showed that the Kandyans were not lightly prepared to submit to foreign rule. The rejection of a British embassy with a strong armed escort was followed by the occupation of Kandy in 1803. A hollow convention, accompanied by the withdrawal of the main body of the occupying forces, was in turn followed by an indiscriminate massacre of those who had been left behind; and it was not till 1815 that, aided by the terror and disgust which the savage tyranny of the King of Kandy had excited among his subjects, the English reoccupied the capital. The king was then formally deposed and banished, and his dominions vested in the British Crown. Even this was not the end of troubles. Within two years, in 1817, the Kandyans broke out into revolt, which took a year to quell. Their hostility represented in part the bona fide discontent of a native race subjected to foreign masters, but still more the struggle of a feudal aristocracy against the levelling justice of British rule. Gradually, however, the long standing customs were modified, which had kept the lower classes of the natives in subjection to the higher; and the construction of roads through the inland districts, especially the great highway from Colombo to Kandy, the work of Sir Edward Barnes,[1] begun in 1821 and finally completed in 1831, in

[1] This road fulfilled a native prophecy, resembling the prophecies to be found in Herodotus, that 'the Kandyan kingdom would perish when a bullock should be driven through a certain hill, and a horseman ride through a rock'. Tennent, vol. ii, pt. 7, chap. 4.

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time consolidated British supremacy in Ceylon. The last Kandyan rising occurred in 1848, during the government of Lord Torrington, but it was quelled within three months, and since that date the history of the island has been one of unbroken peace.

Government and Administration.

Ceylon is a typical Crown colony. The Executive and administrative power is in the hands of the Governor and the five officials composing his Executive Council: while the Legislative Council consists of the Governor, nine official and eight unofficial members. The latter are nominated by the Governor. As a general rule, three of them are Europeans, representing respectively the planters, the merchants, and the general European community, while of the other five, two are Sinhalese, representing respectively the Low-Country Sinhalese and the Kandyans, one is a Tamil, one a Mohammedan, and one a Burgher [1]. Thus, while there is no form of election or pretence of popular government, an attempt is yet made to allow the different classes and interests to be in a manner represented in the legislature.

The administration of the island still retains traces of the old native régime. In the Sinhalese districts, away from the towns and from the ordinary police courts, the village community system is utilized for administrative and judicial purposes. The village councils frame rules for the furtherance of irrigation, the cultivation of lands, the protection of paths and bridges, and other village purposes; and numberless petty cases are tried before the village tribunals. Until the end of the year 1892 the natives continued to pay to the English Government, as they had paid to their native rulers, the tithe of their paddy crops; though they paid it in money, not in kind. Salt still remains a valuable Government monopoly; and compulsory labour is still exacted in a modified form, for all the adult males in the island, who are

[1] See below, p. 117, as to the meaning of the term 'Burgher'.

not specially exempted, are required by law either to work on the roads for six days in the year, or to pay a small sum in lieu of personal labour, and proprietors of paddy-land are required to contribute either in money or in labour to irrigation works undertaken in their district. SECTION III.

Justice is administered in Ceylon by a Supreme Court consisting of a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges, by District Judges, and by Police Magistrates. The law of the land is the Roman-Dutch, supplemented and modified by local ordinances, including Civil and Criminal Codes on the Indian model. In the Kandyan provinces the old Kandyan common law regulates all questions of marriage and devolution of property, and the customs of the Tamils of the Northern province and of the Mohammedans are also recognized to some extent. *Law and Justice.*

The currency of Ceylon is based on the Indian rupee, which is, however, divided into 100 cents instead of into annas and pice as in India. The British sovereign is legal tender at the rate of Rs. 15 to the pound. The revenue is derived mainly from railway receipts, from customs, licences, and stamps, from port and harbour dues, and from the salt monopoly, which directly touches the native population. *Finances, &c.*

The prosperity of the colony received a severe check at the end of the seventies, owing to the ruin of the coffee plantations by disease, and the revenue fell from about Rs. 17,000,000 in 1877 to under Rs. 12,500,000 in 1884, but other products, notably tea, have now taken the place of coffee, and the revenue has since then steadily increased. In 1904 it amounted to nearly Rs. 31,000,000.

The Public Debt at the end of 1904 was slightly under £5,000,000, the money having been expended principally on railways, irrigation, and harbour works.

The value of imports in 1904 was about Rs. 116,500,000, and that of exports Rs. 104,250,000. By far the most important article of commerce is tea, the exports of which in

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1904 were valued at nearly Rs. 57,000,000. About half of the total exports of the colony go to the United Kingdom.

Area and Geography.

The area of Ceylon is 25,481 square miles. Its size therefore is rather more than three-fourths of that of Ireland.[1] Its greatest length, from Point Pedro or Palmyra in the extreme North to Dondra Head in the extreme South, is 266 miles; its greatest breadth is 140 miles, and its circumference 760 miles. The Southern end of the island is rather less than 6 degrees, and the Northern end rather less than 10 degrees, to the North of the Equator. It is therefore in the heart of the tropics.

It hangs like a pear,[2] to which it is generally compared in shape, from the South-Eastern extremity of India, and is nearly joined to it by the islands of Manaar and Ramiseram and the reef between them known as Adam's Bridge. But, in spite of its close proximity to the great peninsula, its geological formation, fauna, and flora, differ considerably from those of India.

Coasts.

Although a considerable extent of its coast, especially on the Eastern side, is honeycombed by a series of lakes and lagoons, in which the rivers lose themselves on their way to the sea, yet the island as a whole is deficient in well-defined estuaries and indentations. There is, however, one notable exception, the Bay of Trincomalee. This bay forms one of the finest harbours in the Eastern seas, and its importance was recognized by the Dutch, who early established themselves here. Trincomalee was the first point in Ceylon occupied by the English, and it was twice taken by the French, in 1672 and 1782. The bay contains an outer and an inner harbour, separated by a promontory, on which the town stands. The inner harbour, said to measure about

Bay of Trincomalee.

[1] The area of Ireland is 32,583 square miles.

[2] The Buddhist poets spoke of Ceylon as 'a pearl on the brow of India'. The more prosaic Dutch compared it to a leg of mutton.

two miles each way, is deep, safe, nearly landlocked, and accessible in all weathers. Unfortunately it is on the North-East of the island—the side furthest from Europe, and consequently lies outside the route of vessels plying between England, Australia, and the Far East. Such vessels touched till comparatively recently at Galle; but now that extensive harbour works have been constructed at Colombo, the capital of the island has become the regular port of call. Further, Trincomalee is removed from the main centres of trade within the island, having behind it a long tract of what is at present half-opened and thinly populated country. The Imperial dockyard at this port was closed in 1904. SECTION III.

Interior. The main features of the interior of Ceylon are clearly marked. The Northern and North-central parts form one great plain from sea to sea, and the maritime districts on all sides are also a series of plains except on the West and South-West. *Mountains.* The centre of the island, however, at its widest point, is filled by a circular mountain plateau almost equidistant between the two seas. The seventh degree of North latitude runs through the heart of this mountain district, which forms, so to speak, the core of the island, and which is estimated to cover an area of over 4,000 square miles. The mountains break off abruptly to the South-East and North, but on the West and South-West the country between the plateau and the sea is hilly and undulating.

Adam's Peak. In the South-West corner of the outer circle of the mountains is the far-famed Adam's Peak, rising to a height of over 7,000 feet. It is visited alike by Buddhist and Mohammedan pilgrims, for both religions have appropriated the rock as a holy place. On its summit is a small hollow in the shape of a foot. To the Sinhalese it is the footprint of Buddha, and it remains in the keeping of Buddhist priests. To the Mohammedans it is the footprint of Adam, and marks the place to which he retired on expulsion from Paradise; and, if the older creed holds possession of the sacred spot,

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Mohammedanism has the consolation of having given to the mountain the name by which it is known to Europeans.

Through the centre of the plateau, from Horton Plains in the South to Kandy in the North, there runs a dividing range of mountains, containing the highest peaks in the island—Pidurutalagala standing first with an elevation of 8,296 feet.[1]

In this hill district are Kandy the Sinhalese capital, and Nuwara Eliya, like Simla in Northern India, the sanatorium for English officials; and among the mountains far more than in other parts of the island are to be found traces of the old native régime, of an ancient aristocracy and a powerful priesthood.

Rivers.

The rivers of Ceylon are of but little use for navigation. Broad estuaries, and waterways leading far into the interior, are conspicuous by their absence. The largest river of the island is the Mahaweli Ganga, which rises in the heart of the mountains near Pidurutalagala, and, after an Easterly and North-Easterly course of some 140 miles, finds its way amid bars and sandbanks partly into the bay of Trincomalee, partly into the sea to the South of that bay. It is at present practically not navigable, but might, it is stated, be made so with the aid of engineering operations. The other principal rivers have for the most part a Southerly or Westerly course. Among them are the Ginganga, which flows into the sea a little to the North of Galle, and the Kalu Ganga and Kelani Ganga, the mouths of which are near Kalutara and Colombo respectively. These three streams are navigable for a short distance inland. Further to the North, on the Western side of the island, is the Kalâ Oya, noticeable as being the river which supplies the great Kalâwewa tank.

Tanks and irrigation.

In old days the want of constantly flowing streams in the interior of Ceylon was partially met, and the water supply of the island was stored and widely distributed, by magnificent

[1] There are said to be 150 mountains between 3,000 and 7,000 feet high in Ceylon.

canals and reservoirs constructed under the authority of the native kings. As has been stated, the art of irrigation was brought from India by the Sinhalese; and an Oriental despotism, with its unlimited command of human labour and its patriarchal supervision of the lives and lands of its subjects, carried out works which modern science and modern economy hesitate to undertake. Further, the Buddhist religion lent its powerful influence to schemes of cultivation, partly in order to wean the people from the use of animal food, partly in order to increase the value of the vast area of temple lands.

In later times of trouble and invasion these channels and tanks were allowed to go to rack and ruin, so much so that native villages may now-a-days be found planted in the beds of ancient reservoirs; and it is only in comparatively recent years that the Government has steadily taken up the task of restoring the works. Where such restorations have been carried out, the results have been most beneficial at once to the natives, who secure a constant water supply for their paddy crops, and indirectly to the general revenue: while the draining of the land and the clearing of the jungle have added greatly to the healthiness of the districts where the works have been carried out.

Since 1870 nearly Rs. 13,000,000 have been expended on irrigation works, of which perhaps the most important has been the restoration, completed in 1902, of the Giant's Tank in the Manaar district of the Northern Province. This tank covers 4,000 acres, has a storage capacity of over a thousand million cubic feet and irrigates an area of about 20,000 acres. Another work of considerable importance and interest was the restoration, completed in 1888, of the Kalâwewa tank in the North-Central Province. The area covered by this tank is about 2,300 acres, and its waters are conveyed Northward by the Yoda Ela canal, 54 miles in length, to the ancient capital city of Anuradhapura. Much still remains to be done before

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Ceylon becomes again the well-irrigated, richly-cultivated land which it was in the days of the Sinhalese kings, but steady progress is being made, and a number of large works are now under construction.

Soil.

In addition to a defective water supply the island suffers from shallowness of soil. In parts which have been cleared of forest and exposed to the full force of the tropical rains, the surface mould is soon washed away, leaving a bare substratum of gravel or rock.

Forests.

In spite of these drawbacks, however, Ceylon is proverbial for richness of vegetation. The forests of the island were once far more extensive and more valuable than they are at present. The sytem of 'Chena' cultivation practised by the natives, and only lately and partially checked by the Government, has gone far to rid Ceylon of its fine timber. Under this system the trees are cut down and burnt; the surface thus cleared is raked over and sown with dry grain, such as hill-paddy, kurakkan, or other grain; and, after one or at the most two crops have been taken off, the spot is deserted and left to be overgrown with worthless scrub, while the cultivators, having ruined one patch of ground within a year, make further inroads into the forest and repeat their wasteful operations. In the Central province another cause has been at work to destroy the forests. Acre after acre of timber has here been cleared to make way for coffee and tea plantations. Thus Europeans and natives alike have combined to deforest Ceylon. There is, however, much valuable timber still left, especially in the Eastern and North-central provinces, where ebony, satinwood, and other forest trees demand, and are now receiving, due protection from the Government.

Animals.

In the forests and jungle of Ceylon, and especially in the more open park country to the South-East of the island, various wild animals are to be found. Among them are bears, leopards, and wild cats, several species of deer,

buffaloes, wild boars, monkeys, and above all, elephants. With a view to preventing the extermination of the more important varieties of game, several ordinances have been passed in recent years, providing for close seasons and restricting the number of animals that may be shot. SECTION III.

Passing from forest trees to the cultivated vegetable products of the island, the first place among trees must be given to the coco-nut palm, which lines the coasts, and which is replaced in the Northern districts by the Palmyra palm. The uses to which these trees are applied by the natives are too numerous to be specified here; but the arrack spirit, which is distilled from the coco-nut palm, may be specially noted, because it brings in indirectly through the licences, which are farmed out under the renting system, a considerable revenue to the Government. Grain is represented mainly by rice in its two forms—paddy, which is grown wherever the water supply is sufficient; and hill-paddy, a species of dry grain, which is grown mainly in the North of the island. About 700,000 acres of land are devoted to the cultivation of rice, and the annual yield is said to be about 8,500,000 bushels.[1] It is still, however, necessary to import about 9,000,000 bushels yearly. Among the spices, which attracted early European traders, especially the Dutch, to the East, cinnamon was the great speciality of Ceylon. It was cultivated mainly on the West coast in the neighbourhood of Colombo, and the value attached to it was one of the reasons for fixing the main European settlement in the island at Colombo. Under the Dutch, the trade in this spice was kept rigidly in the hands of the Government. The English, however, abandoned the monopoly years ago, and other products of the island have long since superseded cinnamon in importance.[2] From 1840 to 1880 the most *Vegetable products.*

[1] These figures are of doubtful accuracy.

[2] A considerable amount of cinnamon is still grown, the export in 1904 being valued at over Rs. 2,000,000.

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important product was Arabian coffee, which had been introduced into the island by the Dutch, and in 1878 275,000 acres were covered with coffee plantations, the annual export amounting to about 975,000 cwt. The ravages of leaf disease, as already mentioned, ruined this industry, and the number of acres now under coffee is less than 5,000, the planters having turned their attention to other products. The most important of these and the present mainstay of the colony is tea, the plantations of which cover more than 460,000 acres, and Ceylon produces more than one-third of the tea-supply of the world. Next in importance are the products of the coco-nut palm, cacao, and cardamoms, while cinchona, coca, and tobacco are also grown; tobacco mainly in the Jaffna peninsula.

The distress caused by the failure of the coffee trade has warned the planters against relying too much on a single industry, and though tea is likely to remain the most important product of the colony for years to come, every endeavour is made to supplement this source of wealth by the cultivation of other products. Experiments which appear to promise well, are being made in the plantation of cotton, and rubber, which has only been introduced within the last few years, already bids fair to become an important factor in the future prosperity of the colony.

Climate and rainfall.

The variations of climate and vegetation in Ceylon depend on two factors, the different altitude of the districts and the distribution of the rainfall. The tea plantations belong mainly to the hill country, and the open patches of grass land known as 'patanas' are found only among the hills. The rise from Colombo to Kandy, and the further rise to Nuwara Eliya, form a gradual transition from a tropical to a temperate climate; and in few countries, within the same latitudes as Ceylon, is so complete a change attainable within so short a distance. The distribution of the rainfall is almost a more important element than difference of altitude in

determining the character of the climate and vegetation in different parts of the island. The rainfall is in great measure controlled by the position of the mountains, and especially by the cross range to which reference has already been made.[1] There are two seasons in Ceylon, roughly speaking. The South-West monsoon prevails from April to September, the North-East monsoon from October to March. During the hot summer months, when the wind blows from the South-West, the moisture, which it brings from the Indian Ocean, is condensed only when driven upward by the mountain barrier: the rainfall therefore at this time of the year is mainly confined to the South-West corner of the island, where it constitutes a moist zone and makes the district, of which Ratnapura is the chief town, the wettest part of Ceylon. The North-East monsoon, on the contrary, comes from a quarter where there are no mountains directly in its path; and, as it blows in the winter time when the surface of the land is comparatively cool, its moisture is condensed more uniformly over the whole island, and its rains are more equally distributed through the various districts. Along the coast the mean annual temperature is about eighty degrees: at Kandy it is about seventy-six, and at the higher hill stations it is lower still. The mean annual rainfall varies from between thirty and forty inches at Manaar in the North-West and Hambantota in the South-East, to over 200 inches in some of the hill districts.

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Being an island, Ceylon compares favourably on the whole with India in the matter of climate, but the low-lying districts are naturally less healthy than the hill country, and the jungle less healthy than those parts of the island which have been cleared, drained, and cultivated. The death rate in 1904 was 24·6 per thousand.

Ceylon has from time immemorial been famed for its gems, and the district round Ratnapura, 'the city of gems,' is rich in catseyes, sapphires, and rubies, while other precious stones of

Mineral products.

[1] Page 108.

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less value, such as moonstones, amethysts and tourmalines are also found in the island. The pearl fishery of the Gulf of Manaar on the West coast to the South of Manaar belongs to the Government, and has from time to time been a valuable source of revenue, the average annual profit for the twenty years from 1886 to 1905 having amounted to rather more than three hundred thousand rupees. Another mineral monopoly is salt, worked chiefly in the Puttalam district of the North-Western province, and in the Hambantota district of the Southern. Of the remaining mineral products, plumbago is the most valuable, being exported in considerable quantities for making crucibles and lead pencils, as well as for other uses. Iron, gold, and platinum have been found, but not in such quantities as to make it profitable to work them. A mineralogical survey, undertaken within the last few years, has resulted in the discovery of several thorium-bearing minerals, the most important, thorianite, being new to science. Thorium is largely used in the manufacture of incandescent gas-mantles and the discovery bids fair to be of considerable commercial value.

Population, race, and religion.

The population of Ceylon at the census of 1901 was 3,565,954, exclusive of the garrison, the crews of the ships in harbour, and about 5,000 Boer prisoners of war. With these elements included it amounted to 3,578,333 [1]. The Western province—excluding the town of Colombo—is the most thickly populated; while the North-Central province, which was in old days the centre of life in the island, has now both actually and relatively the smallest number of inhabitants.

Sinhalese.

The Sinhalese numbered at the time of the census nearly two and a half millions, or about two-thirds of the total

[1] Mr. Arunachalam, the Registrar-General, in his report on the census, estimates that in the height of its prosperity under the native kings Ceylon contained ten million inhabitants. The first census of which any records exist was taken in 1824. The population was then reckoned at 851,940.

population—91 per cent. being Buddhists, and practically all the rest Christians. They inhabit nearly three-fourths of the island, and are divided into two main branches, the low-countrymen mainly in the Western and Southern provinces, and the Kandyans mainly in the Central, North-Western, North-Central, Uva and Sabaragamuwa provinces. The latter have been brought less into daily contact with Europeans, and have in consequence retained more fully their customs, traditions, and pride of race. The Sinhalese, as a race, are distinguished by their small stature and fair complexion.

Tamils.

The Tamils numbered 951,740, or over a quarter of the total population of the island. Some 86 per cent. are Hindus, and about 11 per cent. Christians.[1] The native Tamils are to be found mainly in the Northern province where the inhabitants are almost exclusively of Tamil origin, and in the Eastern province where they constitute more than one-half of the population. Speaking generally, the Southern and Central districts of Ceylon with the Western coasts belong to the Sinhalese, the Northern peninsula and the North-Western and Eastern coasts to the Tamils. In addition to the settled Tamil population, however, a large number of immigrants from the South of India find their way each year to the plantations of the Central province, nearly the whole work on which is done by Indian coolies, more industrious than the Sinhalese. The 1901 census showed that the number of Indian immigrants at that time in Ceylon was over 400,000, more than half of whom were to be found in the Central province.

Moors.

The Moormen, who are of the Mohammedan religion, numbered nearly 230,000 in 1901. They are descended from Arab settlers, but have intermarried freely with the

[1] The proportion of Hindus is probably slightly larger than is here stated. Many Hindus attend Buddhist temples in districts where they have no place of worship of their own, and it is believed that this fact led to a certain number of them being classed in the census returns as Buddhists.

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Tamils, whose language they have adopted. The appelation of Moormen or Moors dates from the time of the Portuguese, who called them by the name of the Mohammedan race with which they were most familiar—their old enemies of Morocco.

The Moormen are, and always have been, the principal traders of the island. In this capacity they are scattered throughout Ceylon: as agriculturists they are found chiefly in the Eastern province, where they form more than one-third of the population.

Veddahs. The Veddahs, who numbered about 4,000 at the time of the census, are, as already stated, most likely the descendants of the aboriginal inhabitants of the island, and are probably of the race which inhabited South India before the coming of the Dravidian peoples. Another theory, based mainly on extravagant Sinhalese legends, regards this race as the degenerate descendants of outcast Sinhalese, but one among other strong arguments against this view is that there has never been any reluctance even on the part of the highest castes of Sinhalese to intermarriage with the more civilized section of the Veddahs. They are divided into two main classes, the village Veddahs who have become more or less civilized and have taken to agricultural pursuits, and the forest Veddahs, a wild unsociable race, who support themselves chiefly by hunting, and seldom venture outside the recesses of the woods in which they live. The Veddahs are said to be rapidly diminishing in number and becoming absorbed into the ranks of their Sinhalese and Tamil neighbours.

Rodiyas. Distinct from the Veddahs, though often confused with them, are the Rodiyas, a tribe of outcasts of obscure origin. They number about 1,400 and are mostly professional beggars.

Malays. There is also a small Malay element, numbering in 1901 about 12,000. The Malays are mostly descended from soldiers brought by the Dutch from Java. They formerly

contributed many recruits to the Ceylon Rifle Regiments, the last of which was disbanded in 1873, and they now form a large part of the police force of the island. SECTION III.

Representatives of nearly every Asiatic race are found in Ceylon, the most numerous, besides those already mentioned, being the Bengalis (about 2,000) and the Cochinese from South-West India (about 3,000). *Other Asiatic races.*

The Eurasians and Burghers[1] number only about 24,000, but their importance as a class is out of all proportion to their numerical strength. They are nearly all Christians. The majority inherit the Portuguese strain and bear Portuguese names; but among the lawyers, clerks, and doctors, who are mainly recruited from the ranks of Eurasians, the Dutch Burghers predominate. Many of them have risen to eminence at the Bar and on the Bench. *Burghers.*

The Europeans in Ceylon numbered 6,300 in 1901, exclusive of the garrison and the prisoners of war. They fall into two main classes, the officials, and the unofficial residents, chiefly Colombo merchants and owners or managers of the hill plantations. *Europeans.*

Among Christian sects in the island, the Roman Catholics are far the most numerous; but there is also a considerable number of Protestants, the Wesleyans, among other sects, having made many converts, especially in the North. *Christian sects.*

Primary education is provided for by Government Vernacular and English Schools, numbering respectively 507 and 180 in 1904, and by Grant-in-aid schools. In the country districts attendance is enforced by the village tribunals. There are also a number of High Schools, which provide *Education.*

[1] The term 'Burgher' is now extended so as to apply to all Eurasians, but, strictly speaking, it should be confined to the descendants of the former Dutch citizens and of other Europeans who had taken service under the Dutch East India Company. There are, perhaps, no pure Portuguese in the island, but a good number of the Burghers are of pure Dutch descent.

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for secondary education. These schools receive grants from the Government, but the only secondary school entirely supported by the Government is the Royal College at Colombo, which has about 300 pupils. Technical education is provided by the Government Technical College, founded in 1893, and by the Grant-in-aid Industrial Schools, and there is a Medical College at Colombo, to which both male and female students are admitted, the number in 1904 being about 130.

The Provinces.

Ceylon has been divided for administrative purposes into nine provinces, each in charge of a Government Agent corresponding to the Indian 'Collector'. First in population comes the Western province, containing Colombo which has ever since the first arrival of the Portuguese been the main station of the Europeans in the island.[1] In addition to being the seat of administration, it is at once the largest town (containing nearly 160,000 inhabitants), the principal trade centre, and, since the recent improvements to its harbour, the chief port of the island. The harbour works were begun in 1875 when the present King laid the foundation of a breakwater, which was completed ten years later. Since that date other important works have been undertaken and are now practically finished, with the result that Colombo now has an enclosed harbour with an area of 660 acres, and, when the works are complete, will be able to dock the largest vessels in the navy[2]. Colombo possesses a municipality, and similar institutions have been given also to Kandy and Galle, while local boards exist in some few other towns of the island.

The Western Province.

Colombo.

Municipalities.

Province of Sabaragamuwa.

The Western province extends along the coast from Negombo to Bentota. Until 1889 it included the more

[1] Long before, in the fourteenth century, Ibn Batuta spoke of it as one of the finest and largest cities of the island of Serendib. See Col. Yule's *Glossary*, under 'Colombo'.

[2] The cost of the harbour works up to the end of 1904 was Rs. 33,226,853.

mountainous inland districts of Kegalle and Ratnapura, the latter of which includes one side of Adam's Peak within its borders, but in that year these districts were formed into the separate province of Sabaragamuwa. SECTION III.

The Southern province, small but very thickly populated, is, like the Western, a purely Sinhalese district, and is even more exclusively the home of the lowland Sinhalese. It extends round the South end of the island from the borders of the Western to those of the Eastern province, and contains inland a tract of open park-like country stretching away towards the mountains. Its chief town is Galle with some 37,000 inhabitants, less prosperous than it was before Colombo was made the port of the island; and it comprises also Matara, near the Southernmost point of Ceylon, and the salt-producing district of which Hambantota is the centre. From Hambantota northwards, along the Eastern side of the island, was formerly the best part of Ceylon for sporting purposes, elephants especially being plentiful, but in recent years it has been found necessary, in order to prevent the extermination of game, to forbid shooting altogether in a great part of this district and to restrict it in other parts. *The Southern Province.*

Kandy is the chief town of the mountainous Central province. It is a town of more than 26,000 inhabitants, with a position accounting for its importance in the days of the Sinhalese kings. It is the inland centre, as Colombo is the maritime centre, of Ceylon. Matale, about 17 miles to the North of Kandy, was formerly one of the centres of coffee planting, and is the chief town of a district stretching away far to the North, past the cave temples of Dambulla, to the thinly populated North-Central province. In the South-Eastern part of the province lies the health station of Nuwara Eliya, at an elevation of 6,000 feet above the sea. The Nuwara Eliya district is one of the main centres of the tea industry. *The Central Province.*

The Badulla district of the Central province was in 1886 *The Province of Uva.*

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created into the separate province of Uva, which comprises the Eastern part of the mountain plateau, rich in plantations, and a large tract of low country stretching to the South and East. On that side it is bounded by the Hambantota district of the Southern province, and by the wilds of the Eastern province.

The Eastern Province.

This last-named province, the home of Tamils and Moormen, consists in great measure of jungle, in which a few tribes of Veddahs are almost the only human inhabitants. It is one of the parts of Ceylon where much has been done, and much remains to be done, in irrigating and reclaiming the ground. The Southern half is comprised in the district of Batticaloa, the town of Batticaloa being the administrative centre of the province. The Northern half constitutes the district of Trincomalee.

The North-Western Province.

On the opposite side of the island is the North-Western province, including a broad tract of low-lying country, and a long strip of coast-line. The chief town of the province is the inland town of Kurunegala, which lies on the railway from Colombo to the North; but the most prosperous part is nearer to the sea, the agricultural district round Chilaw, and the neighbourhood of Puttalam, from which the Government derives the bulk of its salt revenue.

The North-central Province.

Between the North-Western and the Eastern provinces lies the North-Central province, like Uva a purely inland district. In old days the most richly cultivated and most thickly populated part of the island, and the seat of the Sinhalese power in the time of its prosperity, it is at present less opened up and more sparsely inhabited than almost any other part of Ceylon; but with its rich forests, and its manifold tanks and reservoirs, on the restoration of which large sums have been expended in recent years, it possesses capabilities for the future second to no other province of the island, and it is confidently hoped that the recently completed Northern Railway will restore to the district some part at least of its

former prosperity. For the antiquary it is the most interesting district in the colony. It contains the sacred rock of Mihintale; the old city of Anuradhapura, the centre of the provincial administration, with its sacred Bo-tree, its ruined palaces, and other relics of political and religious greatness; Pollanarruwa to the South-East of the province, where the Sinhalese kings retreated, when Tamil invasions made Anuradhapura no longer a safe resting-place for their dynasty; and many other spots which recall a great past. SECTION III.

The province falls into two parts, the Central and Western district known as Nuwarakalawiya with an almost purely Sinhalese population; and the Tamankaduwa district in the South-East, traversed by the Mahaweli Ganga, which should rather be classed with the Eastern province, as Moormen and Tamils form a large proportion of its scanty inhabitants.

The Northern Province.

The Northern cone of Ceylon with the strips of coast on either side is comprised in the Northern province. This province has had in great measure an independent existence from the rest of Ceylon. It is far removed from the centre of government. It is inhabited almost entirely by Tamils; and, as compared with the other provinces, it is at once closer to and has more in common with the South of India. Inland, on the borders of the North-Central province, is the dry, poverty-stricken district round Vavoniya Vilankulam. On the East coast is the lonely station of Mullaitivu, difficult to reach from sea or land. On the West coast is the district of Manaar, deriving its importance from the pearl fisheries. This district has suffered severely from several epidemics of cholera, spread by immigrants from Southern India, who used before 1899 to enter Ceylon mainly by this route, and malaria is also rife. As a result of the unhealthy character of the district the population showed a decrease at the last census. At the extreme North is the Jaffna peninsula, very thickly populated and turned into a series of gardens by the industry of its Tamil inhabitants. The peninsula comprises

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scarcely more than one-fourth of the area of the province, but contains more than five-sixths of its inhabitants; and the town of Jaffna has a population of nearly 34,000. It has an old Dutch fort, and was laid out in great measure by the Dutch.

Railways and Roads.

The railways of Ceylon, which are owned and were practically all constructed by the Government, have a total length of 561 miles, and bring in a yearly revenue of between eight and nine million rupees. The main line, opened in 1867, runs from Colombo in a North-Easterly direction to Polgahawela, over the border of the North-Western province, whence it runs more to the South until it reaches Kandy in the Central province, at a distance from Colombo of about 74 miles. A branch, $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, leads Northwards from Kandy to Matale. From Peradeniya junction, near Kandy, another line runs towards the South and East for a distance of about 90 miles terminating at Bandarawela in the Province of Uva. From Nanu-Oya on this line a narrow gauge line about 20 miles in length runs North-East through Nuwara Eliya to Ragalla.

Another line, $98\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, starts at Colombo and runs along the coast to Matara in the Southern province, close to Dondra Head the Southernmost point of the island, while the Northern Railway, completed in 1905, starts at Polgahawela on the main line and runs almost due North through Kurunegala, Anuradhapura, and the Jaffna peninsula to Kankesankurai on the Northern shore of the colony, its total length being over 200 miles. There is also a narrow-gauge line of $47\frac{3}{4}$ miles from Colombo to Yatiantota, which serves the important tea-growing districts of the Kelani Valley.

The railway system is supplemented by between three and four thousand miles of roads.

General resumé.

Looked at from the inside, Ceylon has large resources, mainly agricultural. It has the lie of land which makes for prosperity. The mountains are grouped in the centre, instead

of lying like barriers along the coast. It has variations of climate and rainfall and consequently of products. But it lacks a rich soil and good water communication. Looked at from the outside, its coasts are wanting in those breaks and fissures which usually attract merchants and settlers; and the one great indentation, the bay of Trincomalee, has been put by nature out of the way of those who hail from Europe. Looked at in its relation to the outer world and especially to the British portion of it, Ceylon is at once connected with and distinct from India. Geographically, it is an appendage of India, as Sicily is of Italy; but in its history, though it has roughly followed the fortunes of India, it has from first to last been what it is at present, a separate Eastern dependency and not an Indian province. Its varied resources make it valuable for its own sake to a commercial nation; the harbour of Colombo is a sufficient inducement to make a naval power with an interest in the Eastern seas glad to own and prepared to keep it; and it holds a singularly central position as a place of call on the route from the West to the South and East. Colombo is about 2,100 miles from Aden, nearly 900 from Bombay, about 600 from Madras, about 1,300 from Penang and 1,700 from Singapore, over 2,000 miles from Mauritius, and over 3,000 miles from Western Australia.

Distances.

But even if this colony were not, as it is, of both direct and indirect advantage to the naval trading nation which owns it, Ceylon is one of the regions of the world with a large native population, which, having fallen under the sway of Great Britain, has become entitled to the continuance of the good government which it enjoys under the British supremacy.

BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS BEARING ON CEYLON.

Of official publications, Mr. VINCENT'S *Report on the Forests of Ceylon*, printed for the Colonial Government in 1883, is most useful for geographical purposes; and Mr. ARUNACHALAM'S *Report on the*

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Census of 1901 is a storehouse of information on all points connected with the colony. The latter report has been freely used in the compilation of this chapter.

Of books, EMERSON TENNENT'S *Ceylon*, published in 1859, is still the main standard work on the colony; and special mention should be made of HAECKEL'S *Visit to Ceylon* (1883).

Of directories, FERGUSON'S *Ceylon Handbook and Directory* gives a vast amount of detail.

THE MALDIVES

THE Maldive Archipelago is a dependency of Ceylon, and the Sultan of the Maldives pays allegiance to and enjoys the protection of the British Government.

Name. The Maldives (Malé dvîpa, i. e. Malé Island) are called after Malé, which is the principal island of the group and the residence of the Sultan: and Malé[1] is perhaps a corruption of the Hindu word 'mahal' or palace.

History. The islands, of which the existence appears to have been known to the Greek geographers of the early part of the Christian era[2], are supposed to have been peopled either directly from Ceylon, or by a race identical with or at least closely akin to the Sinhalese, and the Maldive language approximates to the Sinhalese tongue in its oldest and purest form. *The Arabs.* The Arab traders, however, who settled along the coasts of Southern India and Ceylon, and who are so largely represented at the present day in the latter island under the name of Moors, easily found their way to the Maldives, which lie on or hard by the route from Arabia to the far East. The merchants established themselves in large numbers in the

[1] According to Col. Yule's *Glossary* this derivation is not very probable. It has been suggested that the name has some connexion with Malabar, or else with the Sanskrit 'mala', a chaplet, the reference being to the shape of the archipelago.

[2] Most early geographers, both of the West and of the East, mention the countless islands lying near Ceylon, and the word 'Divis', in the passage from Ammianus Marcellinus quoted on p. 96 above, has been supposed to refer to the Maldives.

islands, and intermarried with the natives, and there also appears to have been some intermixture with the natives of South India. Mohammedanism is at the present day the recognized religion of the islanders. From the account given by the Moorish traveller, Ibn Batuta, who passed some months in Malé in 1343 and 1344, it has been estimated that it was introduced about the beginning of the thirteenth century. SECTION III.

The Portuguese.

Nothing is known of the history of the islands between the time of Ibn Batuta and the date of the arrival of the Portuguese in the Indian seas. To the latter they appear to have been known some years before the first Portuguese landing in Ceylon; and the ships of Lorenzo d'Almeyda which were the first European vessels to touch at Galle (see p. 101 above), had been destined for the Maldives, where they were to intercept trading vessels coming from the East to Arabia. In 1512 the King of the Maldives was said to have become a vassal of Portugal, but probably nothing more was effected than a temporary engagement on the part of the Sultan not to harbour the Arabian merchantmen who made the Maldives their refuge in order to escape the Portuguese monopoly. For many years the Portuguese carried out the policy so often followed by Europeans in the East, that of spasmodic, half-successful interference, and of indirect assertion of authority by supporting one or other of the rival claimants to the sovereignty of the islands. About 1566 they concluded a treaty, which gave the Maldivians a qualified independence, while securing to themselves the monopoly of the island produce; and in this condition matters remained until the Dutch supplanted their European rivals in the Eastern seas.

Pyrard.

Before this change took place, a French vessel was wrecked on one of the island groups, and among the crew who were then stranded and kept in captivity from 1602 to 1607 was François Pyrard, whose account of the Maldives and their

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inhabitants is one of the very few existing authorities on the subject.[1]

The Dutch.

The Maldive Islands passed voluntarily under the protection of the Dutch, directly the latter had taken the place of the Portuguese in Ceylon; and throughout the years during which the Dutch were supreme in the Eastern seas, their relations with the Maldivians were peaceful and harmonious. A Dutch vessel was sent from Ceylon to the Archipelago in 1640. In 1645 the first annual embassy was sent by the Sultan to the Governor of Ceylon, and the friendship between the two peoples continued uninterrupted, until the Dutch were driven out of Ceylon by the English; the absence of jealousy on the part of the Dutch, as wise as it was unusual in their dealings with native races, being shown by their recognizing the Maldive flag as a symbol of national independence in the year 1753.

The French.

The year 1754 saw a detachment of French troops sent from India to Malé by Dupleix in the furtherance of his great scheme for an Eastern empire, but they were withdrawn by his successor Lally in 1759.

The English.

About 1795 the Maldives, still following the fortunes of Ceylon, passed from the suzerainty of the Netherlands to that of Great Britain; and ever since that date the relations between the Maldivians and the English have in the main continued on the same footing of friendly non-interference, on which they were placed and left by the Dutch. The poverty of the islands has offered little attraction to traders; and the kindly good sense of successive Sultans in befriending shipwrecked crews has kept alive a friendly feeling between the natives and their European protectors. The annual embassy sent from Malé to Colombo, bearing good wishes and trifling gifts from the Sultan to the Governor, recognizes the British protectorate; the approval of the Government of

[1] *Voyage de François Pyrard de Laval*, 1st edit. 1611, 2nd edit. 1615, 3rd edit. 1619, 4th edit. 1679.

Ceylon is asked for in the enthronement of each new Sultan[1], and the Maldivians find in Ceylon and British India a market for their scanty products. SECTION III.

The population of the Maldives is supposed to number some 30,000[2], a large proportion of whom are engaged in fishing. They are bold and skilful sailors, and ingenious workmen in the few crafts, such as mat-making and lacquer-work, which are followed in the islands. *Population, customs, &c.*

Serious crime is little known, but the natives are said to be lazy and sensual, and, owing to their isolated position, they are timid and suspicious of strangers, though they have been found humane and kindly to those who have been so unfortunate as to be wrecked on their coasts. Their customs are in great measure coloured by their Mohammedan religion, polygamy for instance being practised by those who can afford to keep or maintain more than one wife. The Government is theoretically a despotism, the Sultan being supreme, but it is a despotism of the mildest form and ordinary political and financial matters are controlled by the Sultan's ministers.[3] There is also a Grand Council, mainly composed of descendants of the royal house, whose advice the Sultan asks, though he does not necessarily accept it, on matters of importance. The head of the Church is also the chief magistrate, and stands second only to the Sultan; and various agents, sub-agents, and headmen superintend the collection of revenue from the different atolls. The revenue, which is estimated to be between Rs. 200,000 and Rs. 300,000 a year, is derived from import and export duties,

[1] In recent years several bloodless revolutions have occurred in the islands, and the various claimants to the throne have had recourse to the good offices of the Governor of Ceylon for the purpose of a settlement.

[2] Some accounts rate it as high as 60,000.

[3] According to the theory of the constitution, the number of these Ministers (Wazirs) should apparently be six, but in practice it has varied from six to one. There are now understood to be five chief ministers.

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largely paid in kind, from port dues on other than Maldivian vessels, and from a poll-tax. The Government also has a claim to all wrecks, and to a right of pre-emption at low rates in the case of all important cargoes.

Geography.

The Maldives lie to the South-West of India and Ceylon, the Northernmost of the group of islands which form the Archipelago being about 350 miles distant from Cape Comorin, and Malé being about 400 miles from Ceylon. They extend in a line, and in the centre in two parallel lines, from North to South, from 7 degrees North of the Equator to about $\frac{1}{2}$ a degree South of the Equator. They consist of a series of atolls[1] or circular groups of islands of coral formation. Each atoll is surrounded by barrier reefs, and separated from its neighbours by channels differing greatly in width, depth, and security for purposes of navigation. There are four main channels which lie, roughly speaking, 5° N. Lat., 2° N. Lat., $1\frac{1}{2}$° N. Lat., and on the Equator. The number of islands is almost infinite[2]; but there are thirteen or, according to other accounts, fifteen main groups, which are recognized as political divisions, under the charge of officers called 'atoluveri', many of whom nowadays reside at Malé, leaving their duties to be performed by deputies. The Malé atoll, lying in the centre, is and has always been the seat of government.

Climate, &c.

The sea and the periodical winds prevent the climate from being oppressively hot, and the range of the thermometer varies but little during the year. The average temperature is from 80° to 90°. The standard of cleanliness and sanitation is said to be greatly above that usual in oriental communities.

The main disadvantage from which the inhabitants suffer

[1] The Maldivian word *atolu*, whence this term comes, is probably the only one which the island language has supplied to the European vocabularies.

[2] It is popularly computed at 12,000. Mr. J. S. Gardiner, who spent some time in the islands in 1900, found that as many as 300 were inhabited.

is an indifferent water-supply. There are no springs, and, though water is obtained in abundance from wells, it is usually brackish: the Sultan and the upper classes obtain their supply of drinking water in ships from Ceylon. SECTION III.

As far as is known, the flora and fauna of the Maldives present no very distinctive features. The coco-nut palm grows to great perfection in the islands, and supplies the inhabitants with most of the necessaries of life. In old days the Coco de Mer[1] was supposed to be a product of the islands, and was known to the Portuguese as the Cocos des Maldives, but botanical research has proved that this fruit, when found at the Maldives, has been washed there from the Seychelles islands, where alone the palm which bears it is to be found. *Products.*

The Portuguese regarded the coir yarn manufactured from the coco-nut-fibre as the most important article of trade to be obtained from the Maldives, and at one time established a factory in Malé for the purpose of supplying the requirements of their fleet. The Dutch paid most attention to the traffic in cowry shells, which served as a substitute for coin and were used in this capacity to a great extent in the West African slave trade. During their possession of Ceylon they established a monopoly over this trade, fixing a price for the shells much below the market value; but this policy, as might have been expected, had the effect of encouraging foreign competition, and the Sultan of the Maldives found that English and French vessels gave him a better price for his shells than was allowed by his Dutch protectors. At the present day the export of cowries is very small, and the principal product exported to India and Ceylon is dried fish, a great part of the supply required by Ceylon being brought from the Maldives. Coco-nut coir and tortoise shell are also

[1] *Lodoicea Seychellarum*. It was supposed to be the fruit of a palm growing under the sea. See Mr. Gray's translation of Pyrard's voyage, vol. i, pp. 230–1 note. See also Col. Yule's *Glossary*, under 'Coco de Mer'. See also below, under Seychelles.

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exported; and among other products of the islands are rush mats manufactured in one of the Southern atolls, and some ambergris, though owing to the gradual extinction of whales this last product is much rarer than in former times.

Imports and exports.

The principal import is rice, hardly any grain being grown in the islands except some millet on the Southern atolls. Areca nuts, petroleum, and cotton goods are the next most important articles in the list of imports.

By far the greater part of the trade is with Ceylon, though there is some trade with Calcutta and other parts. The total value of imports from Ceylon in 1904 was Rs. 165,365, and that of exports to that colony Rs. 1,892,669.

All trade passes through Malé, which has a harbour of about 150 yards in breadth, affording good accommodation for small vessels. It is almost wholly conducted by Indian and Ceylonese merchants.

General résumé.

The most interesting point in the history of the Maldives is that though they have lain in the path of European conquerors and merchants when pressing on to the Malayan and Chinese seas, and though they have passed under the protection of different Powers and been numbered among their dependencies, they have yet in the main been left undisturbed for centuries past. This result has been due partly to the good sense both of the islanders themselves and of the Dutch and English with whom they have had to deal, but still more to the absence of those products which find favour with and lead to the interference of European traders.

PUBLICATIONS RESPECTING THE MALDIVES.

A full account of the Maldives was drawn up by Mr. H. C. Bell of the Ceylon Civil Service, and printed by the Ceylon Government. The print is nominally an 1881 Sessional Paper, but it was not published till 1883.

The *Voyage of François Pyrard* has been translated for the Hakluyt Society by Mr. ALBERT GRAY. The notes of the book (vol. i) contain most full and valuable information with regard to the islands.

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Section IV

MAURITIUS, SEYCHELLES, AND THE SMALLER ISLANDS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

CHAPTER I

MAURITIUS AND ITS DEPENDENCIES

Chapter I. *General.*

In the vast extent of Indian Ocean which lies between the Eastern and the African divisions of her Empire, Great Britain owns a number of scattered groups of islands, most of them insignificant in size and importance. Mauritius alone has great historical interest in addition to present value. The rest, with the exception of the Maldive and Laccadive Islands which belong respectively to Ceylon and to India, the Cocos Keeling and Christmas Islands, which are under the Government of the Straits Settlements[1], and the islands which now form the colony of Seychelles, are dependencies of Mauritius. They include Rodrigues, the Chagos group, and various other islets, a list of which is given in the appendix to this chapter.

History.

Lying on the Ocean route from the Cape to the East, Mauritius was likely to be visited by the ships of the European nations which followed each other in the race for the trade of the Indies. But in their eagerness to reach India and the Malay Archipelago the earlier voyagers paid little attention to the islands which lay on their path. The Portuguese never settled in Mauritius. The Dutch occupied

[1] These islands are described in the chapter on the Straits Settlements.

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it only for a while. It was left to the French to make it a great and important dependency, and in turn, when its value had become fully recognized, to see the fruits of their foresight and energy reaped by another nation, and the Isle of France annexed to the British empire.

The Portuguese.

In 1505 the Portuguese sailor Pedro Mascarenhas discovered the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius. To the former he gave his own name, to the latter the name of Cerne, by which name Madagascar was known, or is supposed to have been known, to the ancients.

Shortly afterwards another Portuguese commander, Don Diego Rodrigues, sighted the island, which still bears his name[1], and Diego Garcia, the chief island of the Chagos archipelago, seems to testify by its name to Portuguese discovery.

As has been said, the Portuguese formed no settlement, temporary or lasting, in Mauritius. They used it only as a point of call, and throughout the sixteenth century it was practically left to itself.

The Dutch.

In 1598 a Dutch fleet, bound for the East, sighted Mauritius. They discovered the harbour on the South-East coast (now known as Grand Port) and the commander gave the island its present name, calling it after the Stadtholder of Holland, Count Maurice of Nassau. For over forty years the Dutch took no more notice of Mauritius than the Portuguese had taken before them. About the year 1644[2], however, a regular settlement was formed in the island. A fort was built at the South-East port, where the first Dutch discoverers had landed, and this point remained the seat of government during the whole period of Dutch occupation. Settlers, however, also established themselves at the North-

[1] Leguat, at the beginning of his account of the island, speaks of it as Diego Ruys or Rodriguez.

[2] This is the date given in D'Unienville's *Statistique de l'Ile Maurice* and other books, but the list of Dutch governors begins in 1638; see the *Mauritius Almanack*.

West port, now known as Port Louis; at Flacq in the North-East, where a garden was formed for supplying the garrison with fruit and vegetables; on the Rivière Noire in the South-West, and at Plaines Wilhems in the West.

The Dutch did something towards peopling the island, but the kind of population which they introduced was of doubtful value. They took advantage of the French settlement in Madagascar to procure a number of Malagasies as slaves, with the result that a great many, after being imported into Mauritius, escaped into the forests in the interior of the island, and there, under the name of Marons[1], became a strong body of banditti, constantly harassing the European settlers. When, owing to this and other causes, the first attempt of the Dutch East India Company to colonize Mauritius proved a failure, convicts were brought into the island from Batavia and other Dutch possessions.

Rodrigues.

In 1690–1, while Mauritius was still in the hands of the Dutch, an attempt was made to colonize the island of Rodrigues.

The Netherlands Government were induced to send out to Bourbon some French Huguenot refugees, under the impression that that island had been abandoned by the French. On the arrival of the ship it was found that this impression was mistaken, and the emigrants were carried on to Rodrigues. There they remained for about two years[2], when the survivors became tired of their solitary life and found their way over to Mauritius.

Soon afterwards the Dutch occupation of Mauritius came

[1] The Maroons or runaway slaves in Jamaica played an important part in the history of that island. The old books (see Long's *History of Jamaica*, and Bryan Edwards' *History of the West Indies*) give the word, from Spanish derivations, the meaning of either 'hoghunters' or 'apes'. It is now, however, generally recognized that the word is an abbreviation of 'Cimaron', from the Spanish or Portuguese 'Cima', a mountain-top. Cp. vol. ii of this series, p. 104, note.

[2] One of them, Leguat, published in 1708 an account of his adventures in Rodrigues and Mauritius.

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to an end.[1] From a commercial point of view the island compared unfavourably with the spice islands of the East, being valued in great measure for its ebony trees; the runaway slaves must have been an obstacle to opening up and planting the country; and the Dutch East India Company were anxious to concentrate their energies on their more promising settlements at the Cape.

Consequently, in 1712, the Dutch abandoned the island, and from that day to this have had no further connexion with it.

The French.

The French planted a colony in Madagascar which proved unsuccessful, and another in Mascarenhas, about the middle of the seventeenth century[2], giving to the latter island the name of Bourbon. They had already contemplated a settlement at Mauritius before it was finally abandoned by the Dutch; and in 1715, three years after the Dutch had left, a ship was sent under the command of William Dufresne to take possession of the island on behalf of the King of France. The captain of the ship changed the name of Mauritius to that of 'Île de France,' and the old name was not resumed until the island passed into English hands.

Mauritius under the French East India Company.

In 1721–2 the island was reoccupied on behalf of the French East India Company, settlers were sent there from Bourbon, a Governor was appointed, and in 1723 a Provincial Council was instituted.

The French settled in the first instance at the South-East port, where the Dutch had made their principal settlement,

[1] One reason given for the Dutch leaving Mauritius was the number of rats there. Perhaps a more probable one is that their main fort had been burnt by the Marons.

[2] The most various dates are given in different books. The first French expedition to Madagascar seems to have been determined on in 1635; the first settlement to have been formed there in 1642. Bourbon seems to have been occupied from Madagascar in 1643, and again in 1649, when the name of Bourbon was given to it. But the following dates are also assigned to the occupation or colonization of the island—1638, 1657, 1664.

and which was now christened Port Bourbon. The colony flourished from the first, but the real history of Mauritius dates from the year 1735, when Labourdonnais arrived, having been appointed Governor-General of the two islands of Bourbon and the Île de France.

Labourdonnais.

Mahé de Labourdonnais was a native of St. Malo, the Breton port which was par excellence the home of French seamen and explorers. His career illustrates in the most striking manner what able and high-minded men France sent out to make a colonial empire, and how hopelessly the fruits of their honour and ability were lost owing to the jealousy of their colleagues and the faults of the Home Government.

Labourdonnais practically created Mauritius; indeed, he well nigh made the French power paramount in the East. He was the soul of honour and patriotism; yet the only reward which he received was to be made the object of constant calumny, to see his efforts for the public good perpetually thwarted, to be superseded in his government, to suffer imprisonment, and to die in poverty and distress.

On his arrival at Mauritius, Labourdonnais moved the capital from the South-East port to the North-West. The town, now Port Louis, was then known as the Camp. He left his own name to be afterwards given to Mahébourg on the South-East harbour. He set himself to fit out the port, to construct hospitals and public buildings, and to supply the town and shipping with fresh water by an aqueduct nearly 6,000 yards in length. He practically called into existence the agricultural resources of the island; he established sugar works[1], and made sugar planting the main

[1] In Grant's *History of Mauritius* it is stated that the sugar works which Labourdonnais established at Villebague, in the Pamplemousses district, produced in 1750 a revenue of 60,000 livres to the East India Company. Labourdonnais is wrongly credited in that and other books with the introduction of the sugar-cane, for Leguat mentions it as being successfully cultivated in the time of the Dutch.

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industry of Mauritius; he set on foot cotton and indigo manufactories, and he imported the manioc plant of Brazil. While encouraging trade and agriculture, he gave security to life and property by putting down the Marons, who had so long been the pest of Mauritius. This he did by arming Madagascar blacks, and employing against the runaway slaves men of their own race and colour.

Before his arrival, Mauritius had been subject to Bourbon; but he soon brought about a new system, under which the criminal jurisdiction of Mauritius was made independent of that of Bourbon, while, for administrative purposes, the Council of the island in which the Governor-General was for the time residing, was made supreme.

The great Governor returned to France in 1740, and there found himself assailed by prejudice and intrigue. He went out again, however, in 1741, and turned his attention to making the colony, whose resources he had developed, an important factor in the foreign policy of France. Mauritius became under him a station from which foreign trade could be crippled and powerful assistance given to the growing French empire in the East. His efforts, however, were neutralized by the folly and worthlessness of the French East India Company and the French Government, and by the jealousy of the French leader in India, Dupleix.

At the end of 1746 he was superseded; and when he reached France in 1748 he was imprisoned in the Bastille. He was released after three years' imprisonment and died in 1753.[1]

Mauritius under the French Crown.

Mauritius belonged to the French East India Company down to the year 1767, when it was transferred to the Crown. The administration of the two islands, like that of other French colonies[2], was now entrusted to a Governor, who was

[1] It was during the administration of Labourdonnais, in 1744, that the wreck of the *Saint Géran* took place at Mauritius, which is a principal incident in *Paul and Virginia*.

[2] e.g. Canada. See *The Old Régime in Canada* (Parkman). Cp.

primarily concerned with military matters, and an Intendant, who was mainly charged with the control of the finances. The 'Superior Council' of Mauritius, composed of leading colonists with some knowledge of the laws, under the presidency of the Intendant, was entrusted with the administration of justice. Moreover, though forbidden to interfere directly or indirectly with the general government of the island, it was required to register the regulations made by the Governor and Intendant, and was permitted to make representations with regard to them to the Home Government.[1]

The Intendant was wholly independent of the Governor, and had the right of corresponding direct with the French Government, so that a dual control existed which was well calculated to breed friction between the officers who happened to be holding the appointments. That such a system should have been carried out is evidence of the suspicious nature of the government of the Bourbons, and shows how the kings and their ministers hampered the men who were entrusted with the administration of the French dependencies. Disputes at once broke out between the first Governor and Intendant of Mauritius, and ended in the recall of the former. The Intendant, M. Poivre, perhaps did more for Mauritius than any other Frenchman except Labourdonnais. He devoted himself especially to developing agriculture, introduced, with great trouble, clove and nutmeg trees from the Dutch and Portuguese Indies, and laid out the botanical gardens at Pamplemousses, which are still kept up by the Government. He held the office of Intendant till 1772.

vol. v of this series, pp. 96 et seqq. A parallel to the position of the Intendant is to be found in that of the Independent Fiscal in the Dutch East India Company's Colonies.

[1] The edict transferring the island to the Crown was issued in 1764. The new system began in 1767. The Royal ordinance regulating the constitution, dated Sept. 25, 1766, is given in the *Collection of the Laws of Mauritius and its Dependencies*; and an abstract of it is given in Appendix B of *England's Colonial Empire*, vol. i, 'The Mauritius and its Dependencies' (Pridham). Pridham states that the 'Superior Council' soon became both a legislative and judicial body.

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Down to the outbreak of the French Revolution Mauritius continued to flourish. The war between France and England brought shipping to its ports and wealth to the colonists. In 1784 the French East India Company was reorganized, and an exception to its monopoly of the Eastern trade was made in favour of the merchants of Mauritius and Bourbon, who were given equal privileges with the company. Consequently, unprivileged French ships brought European wares to the island, Mauritian vessels carried them on to all parts of the East with the exception of China, and Port Louis became more than ever a great centre of trade between Europe and Asia. Finally, in 1789, the year in which the French Revolution broke out, the seat of government of the French possessions in the East was removed from Pondicherry to Mauritius.

Effects of the French Revolution on the island.

The French Revolution brought about a wholly new phase in the life of the island. Between 1789 and 1810 (the year in which the capitulation to the British forces took place), Mauritius developed a kind of independent existence, rare in the history of all small colonies, and perhaps especially rare in that of French dependencies.

The course of events showed how far the island had grown beyond the stage of a mere military outpost or a trading centre, and how completely the French settlers had made it their home. Though the wave of revolution which swept over the mother country reached as far as her dependencies in the Indian Ocean, the causes which led to the subversion of the social and political system in France were wanting in Mauritius. As far as the white inhabitants of the island were concerned, there was no great gulf between different classes. The island was not burdened with a privileged feudal aristocracy, nor with a rich and powerful priesthood. No fault was found with the administration of justice, and no deeply rooted popular discontent assailed the existing form of government.

It was not, however, in the nature of things that the revolution at home, the full news of which reached the colony at the beginning of 1790, should not there produce at least a temporary effect. As revolutionary opinions always centre in the towns, the inhabitants of Port Louis took the lead in establishing a representative popular assembly. It consisted of fifty-one members for the whole of the island, modelled upon the new order of things in France. One serious outrage disgraced the new régime, the murder of Comte de Macnamara, the commander of the French fleet in the Indian Ocean, who was at Port Louis at the time.

In 1793, the news of the accession of the Jacobins to power in France led to the formation of a Jacobin club in Port Louis, which for a short time bid fair to monopolize the management of the colony. But in the following year, 1794, the revolutionary spirit received a check from which it never recovered. The news that slavery and the slave-trade had been abolished in all the French colonies, by a decree of the National Convention at home, had a wonderful effect in changing the views of the Mauritians on the subject of the Revolution. It was one thing to proclaim liberty and equality among whites, but quite another to recognize black slaves as equals and to be utterly ruined for the sake of principle. The Jacobin leaders were deported to France: the power of the club was broken up: and two agents of the French Directory, who arrived at Port Louis in 1796 to proclaim and carry out emancipation, were within four days obliged to leave the island. In 1798 revolution was threatened by the French troops who formed the garrison of the colony, and 800 were re-embarked for France. Not long afterwards a dangerous outbreak took place in Port Louis. It was caused by the depreciation of the paper money issued by the Government of the French Republic and the consequent doubt as to the rate at which the holders of the 'assignats' should be repaid. The Governor and the Colonial Assembly,

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however, were supported by the country people, the disturbance was put down, and the leading insurgents were shipped to France. The Colonial Assembly was then reconstituted and limited to twenty-one members, fourteen of whom were representatives of the country districts, and seven of the town; and when in 1800 General Malartic, who since 1792 had held the post of Governor with conspicuous judgement and ability, died amid universal regret, he left behind him some measure of peace and tranquillity.

While, however, the Mauritians had been quarrelling among themselves, and rejecting the decrees of the Republican Government of France, they had shown little disposition to attach themselves to Great Britain or to any other foreign power, or to relinquish the important position in regard to European politics which they had held in past years. The free colonists were enlisted and trained to arms, privateers were fitted out, and the inhabitants of the island showed themselves able not only to defend their homes without the help of regular troops but even to take part in hostilities beyond their own shores. They received applications for help against the English from the Dutch at the Cape, from the King of Pegu, and from Tippoo Sahib; and to the last-named they appear actually to have sent a small force of volunteers.[1]

Concluding years of the French occupation.

The year 1802, which saw the election of Bonaparte as First Consul for life of the French Republic, gave back a strong government to France and her colonies. To the Mauritians the news was tidings of great joy, for it put an end to their fears of slave emancipation. But while slavery was duly recognized, every vestige of even local independence was summarily obliterated; the Assembly was dissolved, French troops were brought back into the island, and it was held, roughly speaking, as a military post under the rule of

[1] An account of the negotiations with the ambassadors of Tippoo Sahib will be found in Grant's *History of Mauritius*.

General Decaen.[1] He arrived in 1803, holding the appointment of Captain-General of the French possessions East of the Cape.

During the last seven years of its existence as a French colony, Mauritius was wholly absorbed in the war between France and England. It was, as it had been in past years, a perpetual thorn in the side of the English; it was a starting-point for privateering expeditions which did the utmost damage to British trade. At length, in 1809, the Indian Government, under Lord Minto, determined to make a continued effort for the blockade and reduction of the island, and, as a first step in the operations, a force was sent from Bombay to take possession of Rodrigues. In July, 1810, the island of Bourbon surrendered. In the following month the Île de la Passe, at the mouth of the harbour of Grand Port, was taken by the English, but after a series of brilliant naval engagements, was recovered by the French.

The French successes, however, only postponed for a few weeks the conquest of the island. Towards the end of November an overwhelming force was assembled at Rodrigues. Before the month closed, the troops under General Abercrombie landed at the extreme north of Mauritius, near Cape Malheureux. On the third of December, after three days' fighting of a not very serious character, articles of capitulation were signed, securing to the inhabitants their property, religion, laws, and customs; and the Isle of France became, under the name of Mauritius, part of the British Empire. The subsequent Peace of Paris, in 1814, finally confirmed the cession, while it restored the sister island of Bourbon to France: and the dependencies of Mauritius followed the fortunes of the main island.

Mauritius since the British occupation.

Since Mauritius passed into British hands its history has

[1] Under the new constitution the power was mainly in the hands of three officials—the Captain-General, the Colonial Prefect, and the Commissary of Justice. See Appendix B to Pridham's book on Mauritius.

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been less eventful than during the stormy years of which a sketch has been given above. The last century brought political and social changes to this as to other colonies; while the commercial progress of the island has been considerable, in spite of temporary checks, due to hurricanes, to epidemics of cholera, fever, and bubonic plague, to outbreaks of cattle disease, and to the fluctuations of the sugar industry.

Constitutional changes.

During the first years of British rule the whole administration was in the hands of the Governor, and the inhabitants were given no voice in the matter. As time went on the system was gradually relaxed. In 1825 a small council of four officials was constituted to give the Governor the benefit of their advice and assistance. In January, 1832, in great measure in consequence of representations made to the Colonial Office in London by a delegate of the colonists, a Council of Government[1] was established for the colony, consisting of seven official and seven unofficial members, the latter being nominated by the Governor.

The constitution was subsequently slightly modified. January, 1850, saw a municipal constitution given to Port Louis. And finally, the years 1884–5 brought large constitutional changes: an elective element was introduced into the Council of Government, and Mauritius now enjoys a more representative form of government than that of ordinary Crown colonies.

Slavery.

It has already been seen that the slave, that is to say the labour, question was a matter of vital interest to the Mauritians. The internal history of the island since the close of the French war is in great measure the chronicle of the way in which slavery was abolished, and an alternative supply of Indian coolies for the sugar plantations instituted and regulated.

An Act for the abolition of the slave trade was published in the island in 1813. In 1829 the slave laws of the colony

[1] The Council of Government corresponds to the Legislative Council in other Crown colonies.

were revised, and an officer was appointed for the protection of the slaves. By 1832 the colonists, accepting the inevitable, themselves drew up a scheme of emancipation for submission to the Home Government. On the first of Feb., 1835, all slaves were freed, subject to restrictions of apprenticeship, (restrictions which were entirely removed in 1839), and the planters of Mauritius received over two millions sterling by way of compensation.[1]

Coolie immigration.

Concurrently with emancipation in 1835, the immigration of Indian coolies began[2]; few probably foreseeing at the time that after seventy years of the system more than two-thirds of the inhabitants of the island would be Indian. After being suspended for a short time, the introduction of immigrants was definitely sanctioned by the Indian Government in 1842; and, with various checks and difficulties, necessitating various ordinances and commissions of inquiry, the system has continued down to the present day.

The sugar industry.

Coolie labour was required for the sugar plantations, upon which the prosperity of Mauritius depended and depends. In 1825 the industry was promoted by the admission of Mauritian sugar into the English market on the same terms as West Indian; steam communication helped on the trade with the outside world; railways (the first opened in 1864) facilitated transport in the interior of the island.

Causes of depression.

On the other hand the colony has had to contend with numerous difficulties. The causes which have depressed the sugar industry throughout the world have operated in Mauritius, though, owing to the proximity of the Indian market, the island has not suffered so much as have some of the West Indies; a fever epidemic of unparalled severity occurred in 1867; bubonic plague broke out in 1899, and

[1] The number of slaves in the colony at the date of emancipation was over 68,000, of whom a large proportion had notoriously been recently introduced, in spite of the laws against slave-trading.

[2] i.e. systematic immigration on a large scale. Indians had been brought or had come into the colony before.

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has recurred in every subsequent year: and within the last few years outbreaks of the cattle disease, Surrah, have destroyed the greater number of the draught animals in the colony.

Mauritius has also continued to be subject to the ravages of hurricanes. The most destructive cyclone recorded in its history occurred in April, 1892. It lasted for about two hours, and during that time over 1,200 persons were killed and some 4,000 badly injured, while half the sugar crops of the island were destroyed, and one-third of the town of Port Louis laid in ruins.[1]

Government and Administration.

The constitution of 1885 has left the island still a kind Crown colony. The executive power is in the hands of the Governor, acting as the representative of the Home Government; and all appointments are made either by him or by the Secretary of State. He is assisted by an Executive Council of five officials, and two nominated unofficials.

The Council of Government, which is presided over by the Governor, consists of twenty-seven members. Eight are *ex officio*; nine are nominated by the Governor; and ten are elected, two for Port Louis, and one for each of the country districts.

The franchise is limited by a property qualification, and among other details of the constitution it is provided that at least one-third of the nominated members must be persons not holding office in the public service of the colony. Elections to the Council are held every five years.

Administration of Justice.

Justice is administered by a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges, and by District Courts. The Penal Code was passed in 1838, based upon

[1] The total value of the property destroyed by the hurricane can hardly have been less than a million pounds. Nearly Rs. 300,000 was expended in repairing damages to public buildings and in relieving the distress which it caused. Vol. ii of this series gives accounts of the damage caused by hurricanes in the West Indies, but in no case has so great a loss of life and property been recorded.

the penal code of France. The civil law is the civil code of France as it stood at the time when the island capitulated to England. Both codes have been amended and supplemented by subsequent local ordinances. CHAPTER I.

The extreme length of Mauritius from North to South is 36 miles, its extreme breadth from East to West 28 miles. Its total area is about 708 square miles: it is therefore nearly as large as Berkshire. *Area and Geography.*

The island is of volcanic formation and of elliptic form, tapering towards the North. Its coast is broken and indented, but is lined with coral reefs; and its bays and estuaries are for the most part not navigable for ships of any size. There are two exceptions, viz. Grand Port on the South-East, Port Louis harbour on the North-West: the former on the windward side of the island, as regards the South-East trade wind, the latter on the leeward. *Coasts.*

The configuration of the island is not unlike that of Ceylon. The interior may be roughly described as consisting of a strip of plain land round the coast[1] and a central plateau supported by mountains, the outer face of which in some parts is precipitous, in others slopes away more gradually towards the coast. The plain is most extensive in the North; the mountains come nearest to the sea in the South-West. The mountains are not continuous, but give the general outline of a very rough circle more broken on the Eastern than on the Western side. There are three main groups, the Port Louis group in the North-West, the Black River and Savanne group in the South-East, and the Grand Post and Flacq group in the East and South-East. The chief peaks are in the first and second of these ranges. In the latter is the highest point in the island, the Piton de la Rivière Noire, which is over 2,700 feet high: in the former, rising *Interior.* *Mountains.*

[1] See the *Report on the Forests of Mauritius*, by Mr. R. Thompson, printed for the Government and dated August 23, 1880. It quotes a description of the island by Dr. Meldrum, Director of the Royal Observatory.

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over the harbour of Port Louis, are the two curiously formed peaks known as Pieter Both and the Pouce, which are only a few feet lower than the Piton de la Rivière Noire. Pieter Both, called after the first Governor-General of the Dutch settlements in the East, who was lost off the island in 1616, is topped by a rock larger at its summit than at its base: consequently it is hardly surprising that no ascent of the peak is recorded to have been made till 1791[1], and even that record seems to be doubtful. The thumb-like shape of the peak of the Pouce is indicated by its name.

The high ground crossing the central plateau in a North-Easterly direction, from the Savanne mountains to the Northern boundary of Moka, forms the main waterparting of

Rivers.

the island; but though the streams of Mauritius are many, there are none of any size or of any use for navigation. They flow to a great extent in deep ravines, are rushing torrents in the rainy season and nearly dry at other times; and the more the ground has been cleared, the less constant their volume has become.

There are several small lakes in the island, the largest being the Mare aux Vacoas and the Grand Bassin, both in the South-West.

The mountain peaks, the valleys, the waterfalls, and the forests, the last more extensive in past than in present years, have given to Mauritius scenery almost unique in its beauty: and this singular loveliness of landscape may well be held to have intensified the love of the French settlers for the island where they had made their home.

Districts.

Mauritius is divided into nine districts. The district of

Port Louis.

Port Louis consists of the capital of the island and its suburbs. From the Pouce, in the main range of mountains, three transverse ranges branch out and reach nearly to the sea. The two outside spurs shut in the town and the harbour, the central one bisects the town and ends in what is known

[1] The name of the climber was Claude Peuthé.

as the citadel. On the ground rising from the sea to these mountains the city is built, and so steep are the heights behind, that the roads and railways connecting it with the interior are carried round their base and run out to the North-East and South-West. Port Louis is the seat of government and contains the usual public buildings; it is also the commercial centre, and indeed the only town of any great size in the island. The population, which at the census of 1901 was 52,740, has decreased considerably in the last half century. It was 74,426 in 1861, but declined in the following decade, mainly owing to the fever epidemic of 1867, which led a great number of the inhabitants to desert the town in favour of the more healthy locality of Plaines Wilhems. By 1891 it had fallen to 62,169. The further decrease since that date is stated by the Registrar General to be due partly to the fact that many of the tenement houses destroyed in the hurricane of 1892 have never been rebuilt, partly to stricter sanitary measures to prevent the overcrowding of common lodging-houses, and partly to the increased opportunities of earning a livelihood in other districts of the island. The result of the migration of population has been that while Port Louis remains the commercial and administrative capital of the colony, it has ceased to be the residential centre, its place being taken by the districts of Plaines Wilhems and Moka which enjoy a temperate climate and are easily accessible by rail.

The harbour.

The harbour of Port Louis, to which Mauritius owes most of its past greatness and much of its present value, is reputed one of the best in the East. The port proper is rather over three quarters of a mile in length, somewhat less in breadth, with a narrow entrance between coral reefs. There is room within for many vessels, though there is no great depth of water. It is on the near side of the island for vessels hailing from the Suez Canal, and lying close under the mountains is sheltered from the South-East wind.

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Pamplemousses.

Rivière du Rampart.

Flacq.

The North end of the island outside the circle of mountains is filled by the two districts of Pamplemousses and Rivière du Rampart, the latter taking in the Northern promontory. They are both in their main aspect low-lying districts, with a considerable extent of jungle. On the East coast of the island is the district of Flacq, the largest of all the districts: a great part of it, especially towards the sea, is plain land, from which fact it derives the Dutch name.

Grand Port.

The South-East corner of Mauritius is comprised in the district of Grand Port. The Southern part of the district consists of fairly level ground, but the North is filled up by a group of mountains, running from West to East and North-East, and throwing out ridges to the sea. It is an important district, containing a large number of sugar plantations and taking its name from the harbour on which was placed the first home of European colonists in Mauritius.

The harbour.

The harbour is a spacious one, larger than that of Port Louis, but its approach is rendered difficult by the coral reefs which line the shores. It has two entrances, a longer one from the North, another, the main entrance, from the South. Both are narrow and somewhat difficult for navigation. As the harbour lies on the windward side of the island, it is not easy for sailing ships to leave it without the aid of a steam-tug.

Port Louis is now so entirely the shipping centre of the island, that its rival is almost deserted; and the interest which attaches to it is mainly historical, as being the scene of early Dutch and French occupation, and of the later sea-fights which give a brightness and romance to the story of the final struggle between French and English for the possession of the island. The old settlement 'Old Grand Port' was placed on the Northern side of the harbour. The small modern town of Mahébourg, whose existence dates from the year 1805 and the governorship of General Decaen, stands immediately opposite on the Southern side.

Savanne.

The Southernmost district is that of Savanne, in which is

the little port of Souillac, called presumably after the Vicomte de Souillac who ruled the island from 1779 to 1787. The Eastern part is a fertile plain, giving its name to the district: the Western portion consists partly of mountains, partly of a strip of coast land.

Rivière Noire.

The district of Rivière Noire takes in the South-West and West of the island between Savanne and Port Louis. It is the most mountainous part of Mauritius, but even here there is a level strip along the coast which is widest towards the North. The heat on this Western coast is greater than in any other part of the island, and in consequence tropical fruits grow here in abundance.

The high central plateau is mainly divided between the two remaining districts, Plaines Wilhems comprising the South-Western half, Moka the North-Eastern.

Plaines Wilhems.

Plaines Wilhems is named after two brothers, who were the first settlers in this part of the island during the time of the Dutch occupation. The principal place in the district is Curepipe, the second largest town in the island, with a population of over 13,000 at the last census.

It has already been seen that the causes which have operated to diminish the population of Port Louis have led to an increase in that of Plaines Wilhems, which has risen from 28,020 in 1861 to 63,634 in 1901, and have made this district one of the main residential centres of the island. The barracks of the garrison are also situated here.

Moka.

Moka[1], it is suggested, was so called as being the part of Mauritius into which the cultivation of Mocha coffee was first introduced. Within its limits on the side nearest Port Louis is Reduit, formerly the country and now the only residence of the Governor: it is within easy reach of the capital by rail.

The population of Moka, like that of Plaines Wilhems, has

[1] The name may possibly have originated in the fact that Capt. Dufresne, who took possession of Mauritius for the King of France in 1715 [p. 134], set sail from Mocha for that purpose.

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grown in recent years at the expense of Port Louis. In 1861 it was 17,704, in 1901 35,258.

Railways.

The island contains 131 miles of railways, all built, owned, and worked by the Government. There are two main lines, the North and the Midland, having a common terminus in Port Louis. The North, 31 miles in length, runs through the districts of Port Louis, Pamplemousses, Rivière du Rampart and Flacq to Grande Rivière South-East on the Eastern coast. The Midland, which has a length of a little over 35 miles, serves the centre of the island, traversing the districts of Port Louis, Plaines Wilhems, and Grand Port, and ending at Mahébourg in the South-West. A branch line about 27 miles long starts from Rose Hill on the Midland line, and runs through the Moka and Flacq districts, joining the North line at Rivière Sèche a little to the North of Grande Rivière; another branch leaves the Midland line at Rosebelle and traverses the Savanne district, ending at Souillac, the Southernmost point of the island, and a third runs from Richelieu on the Midland line through the Northern half of the district of Black River to the Western coast which it reaches at Tamarin. There are also two shorter branches, one from Terre Rouge on the North line to the village of Montagne Longue, a distance of about 4 miles, and another of narrow gauge which leaves the Savanne branch line at Rivière du Poste and runs to the Kanaka Government Forest (8 miles), a subordinate branch about 3 miles long diverging from it and running to Nouvelle France. Every district in the island is thus tapped by the railways. The North line was the first built, having been opened in 1864, and the others have been constructed at various times since that date, the newest being the Montagne Longue and Black River branches, which were built after the epidemic of Surrah, to which reference has been made, mainly in order to provide for the carriage of the produce of the sugar estates.

Climate and rainfall.

Mauritius lies just within the tropic of Capricorn, and therefore, it need not be said, has a hot climate. The heat is greatest and the rainfall heaviest during the months from December to April. The thermometer has at times registered over 90° in the shade, but the mean annual temperature in the lower parts of the island is about 74°, while on the upper levels not only is the maximum of heat less but the variations of temperature are also much greater.

Though less rain falls in the cooler months, there is no absolutely dry season, and a month rarely passes without some rain. The average annual fall at the Observatory at Pamplemousses is said to be about 48 inches, but the amount varies very greatly, not only in different years but also in different parts of the island.

On the East coast, the side exposed to the trade winds, the amount of rain is from two to three times as great as on the Western side of the island; and as a rule the greater the elevation the greater is the amount of the rainfall. Thus a very rough comparison of years showed a wide difference in the mean annual rainfall at different stations, the wettest being Cluny, 1,000 feet above the sea on the South-Eastern ridge, where the mean is about 145 inches, and the driest Albion, on the Western side of the island in the Black River district, where it is 31 inches. The greater prevalence of droughts in present than in past times is attributed in large measure to the clearing of the forests, which has resulted from the spread of sugar-planting. Though the actual amount of the rainfall has rather increased than diminished, it seems certain that, through laying bare the ground, the climate has become less equable, the water-supply has been rendered less constant, the rich but shallow soil has deteriorated, and the productiveness of the island and the health of its inhabitants have suffered in no small degree.

Mauritius lies directly in the track of the South-East trade

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winds, which blow most steadily during the cooler months. During the hot months the island is from time to time visited by hurricanes, which lay low houses and plantations, and cause an immense amount of misery and loss.

Products.

The riches of Mauritius are purely agricultural[1], it has practically no mineral resources. The different levels to be found in the island have given it variations of soil and climate favourable to the development of agriculture, but both soil and climate have suffered from indiscriminate clearing, and the prevalence of hurricanes has been an obstacle to steady agricultural progress.

Forests.

The forests, the ebony trees of which in old days attracted the Dutch, and which little more than 50 years ago are said to have covered nearly two-thirds of the island, have, owing to the extension of sugar cultivation, to a great extent disappeared. What remains of them is to be found in the strip of coast round the island known as the Pas Géométriques[2], in the reserves along the crests of the mountains and the sides of the streams, and in a few woods, the largest of which are in the South-West of the island, the Black River district and the neighbourhood of the Grand Bassin.

Animals.

It is naturally in the more wooded districts that the few wild animals of which Mauritius can boast are mainly to be found. Among them are monkeys, wild boars, and wild deer, the ancestors of all of them having, it is said, been introduced by the Portuguese[3]. Nearly all the animals at present to be found in Mauritius are importations; but the fruit-eating bat

[1] Some iron was worked in the island in early French days; and, under the Dutch, ambergris was one of the specialities of Mauritius. A little island off the North-East corner of Mauritius is called the Île d'Ambre.

[2] The Pas Géométriques and the mountain and river reserves date from the French occupation of the island. The Pas Géométriques is a strip of land reserved for trees, 250 French feet broad, along the extreme edge of the coast all round the island.

[3] As to the rats in Mauritius, see p. 134, note 1. The cats in the island, according to Grant, were 'thin and emaciated, nor do the rats discover any very great apprehension of them'.

is indigenous both to this island and to Rodrigues. Fossil specimens have been found of the large land tortoise, though not of the same kind as still exists in the island of Aldabra, and of the dodo, the giant bird of Leguat's narrative, while early accounts of the island mention several other species of birds which have now become extinct.

Of late years the Colonial Government has realized the injury done to the island by indiscriminate clearing, and steps have been taken to protect existing timber and to promote reafforestation. At the same time, in many parts a secondary growth is beginning to spring up of itself, and to replace to some extent the more valuable primaeval forest.

Sugar.

Among cultivated products sugar stands quite alone, the whole island being practically given up to it. A certain amount was grown by the Dutch, but it was Labourdonnais who made Mauritius a sugar-planting colony. At the present day the largest production is in the East and South-East, especially in the districts of Flacq and Grand Port: in some other parts, such as Pamplemousses in the North and the rugged district of Black River in the West, the amount grown is comparatively small. The low prices prevailing everywhere have combined with special local circumstances, to which reference has already been made, to depress the industry, but prospects appear now to be improving. The value of sugar exported had fallen in 1901 to under Rs. 28,000,000, but it has steadily risen since that date, and the export for 1904 was valued at Rs. 40,512,462. At the present day, the only other products of Mauritius which deserve notice, besides sugar, rum, and molasses[1], are aloe-fibre, and vanilla. The exports both of rum and of vanilla have greatly decreased in recent years. Manioc, which was introduced

[1] In 1904 the products of the sugar-cane (sugar, rum, and molasses) accounted for almost 98 per cent. of the total value of exports. The West Indian Royal Commission of 1896 found that in the case of Barbados the percentage was 97, in that of St. Kitts-Nevis 96½, and in that of Antigua 94½.

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by Labourdonnais, is still grown, but the cotton and indigo industries, which he also created, are now practically extinct.

Tobacco planting finds a place in the records of the Dutch occupation, but the amount now grown is very small.

Various kinds of fruits and vegetables, European[1] and tropical alike, are raised in different parts of Mauritius. When Leguat visited the island at the end of the seventeenth century he found, according to his own statement, that potatoes were as much the staple food of the Dutch colonists of Mauritius as of the peasantry of Ireland. At the present day the Indians are the chief gardeners, and they grow their vegetable produce in the district of Pamplemousses, not far from the market at Port Louis, and also in the centre of the island. The necessaries of life, however, are for the most part imported from abroad. Rice and other grain comes chiefly from India, flour from the Australasian colonies and from India also, cattle from Madagascar, dried fish from India and South Africa, wine from France, cotton goods mainly from the United Kingdom, and coal from the United Kingdom, Australia, and India. It was Labourdonnais' aim to make the island self-supporting, but, on the contrary, it has become perhaps more dependent on supplies from the outside than almost any other part of the globe.

Health.

The mortality statistics of Mauritius have of recent years been very high, the death rate in 1901 being over 40 per thousand. Matters appear now to be improving, and the death rate in 1904 fell to a little over 32 per thousand.[2] The island has at times suffered from epidemics of cholera and small-pox, the recurrence of which is guarded against by very strict quarantine laws, but the most prevalent and

[1] European plants were grown by the Dutch in the garden mentioned on p. 133.

[2] It should, however, be noted that the high figures are due, in the most part, to the unhealthiness of the town of Port Louis, where the death-rate in 1904 was nearly 48 per mille. In other parts of the island the rate is very much lower, that for the Moka district in 1904 being only 24·5.

deadly diseases in the island are malarial fever and bubonic plague. In 1867 malaria brought death to over 18,000 in Port Louis alone, being more than one-fourth of the population of the town; and it has recurred, though with less violence, in subsequent years. As already stated, bubonic plague first appeared in Mauritius in 1899, when it caused over a thousand deaths, and the island has never been entirely free from it since that date. It usually assumes an epidemic form in the latter half of the year. The disease is fatal in about 75 cases out of a hundred. The number of deaths from this cause fell to under 400 in 1902, but rose again to over 1,000 in 1903. In 1904 it fell again to about 450. The great increase of population, the absence, till lately, of systematic sanitation, the cutting down of the forests, and the pollution of the rivers have also no doubt affected the general health of the island; while Port Louis in particular has suffered from its position, being cut off by the mountains from the South-Easterly breezes.

Population.

The most noticeable points in the population statistics of the island are the great density of the population at the present time, the rapidity with which the numbers have grown during the present century, and the extraordinary increase of the Indian element in the community. According to the census of 1901, the resident population numbered 371,023. It is now estimated at nearly 379,000.[1] These figures give a density of over 535 inhabitants to the square mile.[2] At the end of the last century the population was estimated at 65,000.[3] In 1830, when the days of slavery were rapidly being numbered, the whole population was estimated at under 100,000, over two-thirds of the total number being slaves. The census of

[1] These figures do not include the garrison of about 3,000 men, or the population of the dependencies.

[2] In England and Wales there were at the last census 558 persons to the square mile.

[3] In 1799. These figures are given in Grant's *History*. 55,000 were slaves, 10,000 whites and mulattos. The population of Port Louis was estimated at three-fifths of the whole.

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1851 gave a total population in round numbers of 181,000, and that of 1861 a total of 310,000, the enormous increase in the ten years being due to Indian immigration. At the last census the Indians formed almost 70 per cent. of the total population, including both immigrants and Indians born in the island. The general population includes among its main elements the French creoles, i.e. the descendants of the old French settlers, blacks of African descent, and residents whose descent is half European, half African or Asiatic; there are also between 3,000 and 4,000 Chinese in the island, but at present the number does not tend to increase.

In most other countries, where slavery has prevailed, the result of emancipation has been that the bulk of the population consists of the freed slaves and their descendants. Mauritius is a notable exception. The slaves formed an overwhelming majority of the population, and were mainly of Malagasy and Mozambique descent, yet a period of less than seventy years has so entirely changed the face of the island that this element is now comparatively insignificant, and the African race has fast given place to the Indian.

The number of the general population has for many years been almost stationary. At the first census taken in the island (1846) it was 102,217: at the 1901 census it was 111,937, and it is now estimated at about 113,000. On the other hand, the Indian element is growing stronger every year. In 1846 it numbered a little over 56,000: by 1861 this number was nearly doubled, owing to the development of the coolie labour system, and in 1901 it reached 259,086. At the end of 1904 it was estimated to amount to over 265,000. It should be noticed that imported coolies do not now make up the greater part of the Indian population. They numbered in 1901, with their wives and the children born in India, 62,022, while the Indo-Mauritians, i.e. persons born in the island of Indian parentage amounted to 198,958, so

that even if immigration from India were to cease, the Hindu would still continue greatly to outnumber the general population.

The most interesting feature of this development is that great numbers of the Indo-Mauritians, and those immigrant Indians who remain in the colony after they have completed the term of their indentures, are not content to remain mere labourers on large estates: they purchase or lease small allotments of land and grow sugar on their own account, sending the canes to be crushed at the nearest mill. A large number of estates have thus been divided into small holdings, and the process is still continuing. The result is that a great part of the land of the colony is passing from the hands of the owners of large estates into those of peasant proprietors, and from the possession of Mauritians into that of Indians; for, with the exception of a few Chinamen, it is the Indians only who have adopted this system of cultivation, the poorer creole being averse to any form of agricultural labour. About one-third of the sugar now produced in the island is grown on these small holdings, which comprise about a third of the whole cultivated area.

Religion and Education.

In view of the figures which have just been given it is natural that the Hindu creed should have more adherents in the island than any other religious belief. There is also a considerable Mohammedan element. Among Christian sects the Roman Catholics are far the most numerous, but State aid is given alike to the Roman Catholic Church, the Church of England, and the Presbyterians.

The annual estimates include a large educational vote, but, owing to the predominance of the Indian element, the number of children receiving primary instruction is not very large. In 1904 there were sixty-eight Government primary and eighty-six Grant-in-aid schools, of which sixty-six were Roman Catholic. Higher education is provided for by the Royal College, supported by the Government, and endowed

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with two scholarships per annum, entitling the holders to some four years' education in England. The college, which is attended by about 400 pupils, was removed a few years ago from Port Louis to Curepipe.

Finances.

The currency of Mauritius and its dependencies is based on the silver rupee, which is divided, as in Ceylon, into 100 cents. The revenue is derived mainly from import duties, licenses, and railway receipts: there is also a small duty on exported sugar. The finances of the colony have been in a rather unsatisfactory state during recent years. The revenue, which had been over 9½ million rupees in 1882, fell greatly in succeeding years, and, in spite of extra taxation, the figure attained in 1882 was not again reached until 1904–5[1], the revenue for which year exceeded 10 millions. It may, however, be hoped that the period of depression is now at an end, as the estimate for 1905–6 is a little over 10¼ millions.

The result of the depression has been a very considerable increase in the Public Debt, which now amounts to about £1,500,000. The earlier loans were issued for the purpose of providing for the cost of railways and for waterworks; but in 1892 it was found necessary to borrow for the purpose of advancing money to planters to enable them to tide over the losses caused by the hurricane, and a similar course has recently been adopted in consequence of the destruction of the draught animals by Surrah.

It should, however, be observed that by far the greater part of the debt does not actually involve a charge on the public revenue, and is practically little more than a guarantee, since the money raised has been lent to planters, who pay interest on these loans and are gradually repaying the capital.

Imports and Exports.

The trade returns tell the same tale of depression. In 1882 the exports had been valued at nearly Rs.40,000,000,

[1] The financial year now ends on June 30.

and the imports at over Rs. 28,000,000. By 1899 the exports had fallen to under Rs. 25,000,000, while in 1897 the imports fell below Rs. 19,000,000.

The last few years have, however, shown an improvement, and in 1904 the exports exceeded Rs. 42,000,000 in value, the imports being valued at rather under Rs. 36,000,000.

Of the countries from which Mauritius derives its imports India is first[1], being followed by the United Kingdom, France, Australia, and the United States, in the order given. The exports go chiefly to India, the Cape, Great Britain, France, and Natal.

Distances.

Mauritius is about 115 miles distant from the sister island of Réunion or Bourbon, and about 500 miles from Madagascar: it is about 1,550 miles from Natal, about 2,250 from the Cape of Good Hope, and about 2,400 from Aden, on the way to which lies the colony of Seychelles at a distance of over 900 miles: it is over 2,000 miles distant from Ceylon, rather more than half-way to which is Diego Garcia, and it is over 3,100 miles distant from the South-West point of Australia. Thus it is nearest to the French possessions in those seas, while of British possessions it is nearest to Seychelles. Mauritius is a station on the cable route from the Cape to Australia, and is also connected by cable through Seychelles with the East coast of Africa, and thus with Aden and Europe.[2] For its mails it depends partly on the Messageries Maritimes steamers from Marseilles, and partly on the British India Company's steamers from Colombo. Steamers belonging to the Union Castle Company run between Port Louis and the Cape.

General Summary.

Mauritius is an instance of a country in which geography and history have to a certain extent run counter to each

[1] In addition to the imports from British India, those from the French port of Pondicherry are considerable.

[2] A cable is now being laid between Réunion and Mauritius.

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other. Geographically it belongs to Africa, but the course of its history, as has been shown, has closely connected it with Asia. In the earlier days of European colonization Africa itself was no more than a stepping-stone to the East; hence the future of an island which lay some hundreds of miles nearer to Southern Asia would naturally follow the course of events in the East, although it drew the bulk of its population from the nearer shores of Madagascar[1] and Mozambique.

But while the African continent has gradually developed a history of its own independent of the East, the connexion between Mauritius and India has become still closer than in former days. Its trade with India both in imports and exports, as has been seen, exceeds that with any other country, and the bulk of the population of the island is of Indian descent.

Yet the history of Mauritius has been clearly modified by its geographical position. Had it lain in the East Indies, instead of merely being a point on the road thither, the Portuguese, we may suppose, would have colonized it, and the Dutch would have made greater efforts to retain it; as it was, its importance began with the age of conquest, as opposed to the age of trading and colonizing, and it became great in the hands of the French, a nation which meant to build up a military empire in the East.

Consequently it is as a French island that Mauritius is known to history; but it was more than merely a military outpost of France. In Mauritius, as in Canada, the French showed themselves capable of colonizing in its truest sense, and of forming a permanent French community.

It seems a strange fatality that it should have fallen to the lot of Great Britain to take away from other nations the very parts of the world in which they had done and were doing

[1] It must be remembered that the Malagasies themselves are not a Negro but a Malay race.

solid work. In Canada and Mauritius the French showed themselves to be something more than conquerors. In New York and the Cape the Dutch settled and did not merely hold trade dependencies. In each case the colonies fell into the hands of the English race.

In estimating then the position which Mauritius holds in the British colonial empire, the first point to remember is that it has been a French colony, that the English have here to rule a considerable number of settlers of French descent, that French traditions, laws, customs, and religion have a strong and lasting hold on the community, and that its nearest neighbour is the French island of Réunion. It seems a somewhat unsatisfactory compromise, which, at the end of the long duel between France and Great Britain, separated the fortunes of the twin islands, instead of assigning both to England or restoring both to France.

Like the West Indies, Mauritius derived a great deal of its prosperity in past times from being a centre for freebooting and privateering. As the buccaneers of the Spanish Main brought inhabitants and riches to the West Indian islands, so pirates and slaveholders, and subsequently commanders of privateers in the service of France, contributed to the history of Mauritius. Like those islands again, Mauritius is a sugar-growing colony which once had a large slave population; but emancipation has worked different results in the two cases: in the West Indies the bulk of the inhabitants are still the descendants of the African slaves; in Mauritius, on the other hand, the introduction of free labour has led to the vast predominance of the Indian over the African element.

The opening of the Suez Canal has had the effect of entirely changing the character of the trade of Mauritius. In the days of the Cape route to the East, Mauritius flourished greatly on account of the transit trade to and from Europe. Now, owing to the diversion of traffic to the Red Sea route, this passing trade has been lost. Few ships visit the colony

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except those specially chartered to take in or deliver cargo at Port Louis. The result has been to throw the colony back on to its own resources and, as has already been seen, those resources can be summed up in the one word 'sugar'. The drawbacks and dangers of this state of affairs have been only too apparent in recent years, and Mauritius, like the sugar-producing colonies of the West Indies, though to a less extent, has had cause to regret its dependence on a single industry.

RODRIGUES

Now that Seychelles has become a separate colony, the principal dependency of Mauritius is the beautiful island of Rodrigues, which lies about 350 miles distant from Mauritius a little to the North of East.

Its shape is that of an irregular oval; its length from West to East is said to be about 12 miles, its breadth from 4 to 5,[1] and its area between 40 and 50 square miles. It was discovered by the Portuguese[2]; and, during the Dutch occupation of Mauritius, a small party of eight Huguenots[3], among whom was Leguat, settled on the island, leaving it after two years' sojourn. Leguat records that he found the names of some Dutchmen inscribed on a tree, showing that the Dutch as well as the Portuguese had visited Rodrigues; and it is interesting to notice that the chief village of the island now bears the Huguenot name of Mathurin, although that name is not to be found in the list of Leguat's companions. During the latter part of the eighteenth century the French placed a Superintendant in the island, mainly to protect the land tortoises, which are now no longer to be found. In 1809–10 it was occupied by a British force destined for the capture of

History.

[1] These are the dimensions given in Mr. Ackroyd's report on the dependencies of Mauritius, dated 1880. The Colonial Office List gives a length of eighteen miles and a breadth of seven.

[2] p. 132. [3] p. 133.

Mauritius[1], and has since remained a British possession. In 1761, and again in 1874, it was chosen as a place from which to observe the Transit of Venus.

Administration.

In 1843 a judicial and police establishment was formed in the island under the authority of a special ordinance passed for the purpose by the Mauritius Government; the small staff of officials is now headed by a magistrate, who acts directly under the instructions of the Governor of Mauritius.

Geography. Port Mathurin.

Rodrigues is surrounded by a ring of coral reefs. A narrow opening in them, on the Northern coast and towards the Eastern end of the island, leads into the roadstead of Port Mathurin. The little village of Port Mathurin is the capital of the island, there being one other hamlet on the high ground of the interior, called Gabriel.

The island is of volcanic origin and is very mountainous, the highest point being said to be over 1,700 feet. In the South-West are the caves which form the great natural curiosity of the island, remarkable for the size and beauty of the stalactites which they contain.

Climate.

The soil in the valleys is extremely rich, and the water supply is as a rule plentiful, though severe droughts occur from time to time. The climate is singularly healthy for the tropics, the death-rate being little more than half that of Mauritius; but the gales are more violent and the hurricanes more frequent than in Mauritius. In old days Rodrigues was covered with timber; at present the principal trees are the latania and vacoa palms and the palmiste.

Products.

More of the land, too, was under cultivation in the days of the French régime than is now the case, and in bad seasons the amount of grain grown is not sufficient to provide for the wants of the inhabitants.[2] The chief vegetable products are sugar, cotton, coffee, rice, beans, maize, and vanilla, and

[1] p. 141.

[2] In times of drought, when the crops of maize, &c., fail, the food supply is imported from Mauritius in the shape of rice.

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fruits of various kinds, especially oranges, citrons, and limes. Tobacco is also grown, and the amount exported to Mauritius in 1904 was valued at over Rs. 27,000. Beans are one of the articles of export to Mauritius. Among animals the fruit-eating bat is native to the island; most of the other animals have been imported, among them rats, which are a great nuisance to the community. The pasturage is excellent; cattle, pigs, and goats are reared not only for home consumption but also for export to Mauritius. Poultry is abundant, and fishing employs a considerable number of the population, a large amount of salt-fish being exported. The total value of the exports from Rodrigues in 1904 was Rs. 201,861, of which salt-fish accounted for Rs. 97,933 and goats for Rs. 49,188.

Rodrigues has changed much since the days of Leguat: the woods have in great measure been destroyed, nothing is now heard of amber or ambergris[1], the land tortoises have disappeared, and only fossil specimens are now found of the 'solitaire'—the dodo-like bird with small wings—of which so full an account is given in his narrative.

Population.

The population of the island is on the increase. At the 1901 census it amounted to 3,162 as against 2,068 in 1891, and 495 in 1851. Its members are mainly of African origin, the descendants of the slaves introduced from Mauritius by the French and supplemented directly from Africa. They are almost entirely agriculturists, herdsmen, or fishermen. They have their schools, post office, and hospital; a doctor and a Roman Catholic priest are provided for them by the Government; and on the whole their life is that of a healthy and contented, if poor and isolated, community.

In 1902 a cable station on the Cape-Australia route was established in the island.

[1] Leguat says of Rodrigues, 'La mer apporte de l'ambre jaune et de l'ambre gris'. Possibly amber and ambergris were confused with each other as regards both Rodrigues and Mauritius. See p. 152.

THE MINOR DEPENDENCIES OF MAURITIUS

The various islands, other than Rodrigues, which are classed as dependencies of Mauritius, are as numerous as they are for the most part insignificant in size and importance. They are, roughly speaking, groups of islets of coral formation with connecting reefs. The majority of them are known as oil islands: they are in most cases leased to or owned by Mauritian proprietors, and their population consists mainly of coloured labourers engaged in collecting the coco-nuts and in extracting and exporting the oil which they yield. The managers of the estates keep stores from which rice and other imported necessaries are supplied, and on most of the islands fish and fruit are procurable in more or less abundance. There are two Magistrates for the Lesser Dependencies, who pay periodical visits to the islands and inquire into the condition of the labourers, hear complaints of masters against servants, or vice versa, see that the terms of engagement are duly fulfilled, and adjudicate on any cases which may have been reserved for their hearing. A report of each visit is duly printed and laid before the Mauritius Government.

In 1901 the total population of these dependencies was estimated at 1,697; the island of Diego Garcia had the largest number of inhabitants (526), and Agalega came next with 372. The inhabitants, as might be expected, are mainly of African or Malagasy descent, with a sprinkling of Indians. As a rule they are engaged in Mauritius or Seychelles under contract for a specified term.

St. Brandon.

Nearest to Mauritius, some 250 miles to the North-East, is the St. Brandon or Cargados Carayos group, a collection of islets, most of which are little more than sandbanks. They are occupied by about 50 labourers and fishermen in the employ of a Mauritius company, and export a certain amount of salt-fish and turtle, in addition to from 300 to 400 tons of guano yearly. The name St. Brandon recalls

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the mediaeval legend of the saint of that name, but the discoverer of the happy[1] isles and an earthly paradise must have found it elsewhere than in the Cargados group.

Agalega.

Further to the North, nearly 600 miles from Mauritius, are the two islands known as Agalega, from which more oil is exported to Mauritius than from any other of these small islands. The coco-nuts and the establishment engaged in collecting them are found mainly on the Southern island, which however is only separated from the other by a very narrow strait, fordable at low water.

Coetivy.

Still more to the North lies the island of Coetivy, bearing the name of the Chevalier de Coetivy, the commander of a French vessel who first discovered it in 1771. It was settled from Mauritius in 1814, and now holds a population of about 130 persons. It is about 6 miles long by about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile wide. About two-fifths of this area are cultivated, and a considerable amount of oil is exported.

Farquhar Glorioso Islands.

Due West of Agalega to the North of Madagascar, and about 700 miles North-North-West from Port Louis lie the Farquhar, also called the Jean de Nove or Juan de Nova, Islands. The group consists of nine islands with a population of about 120. Still further West, to the North-West of Madagascar, are the Glorioso Islands, called after the French ship *Glorieux* which surveyed the coast of Madagascar in 1753.

Diego Garcia.

Right in the middle of the Indian Ocean lies the Chagos Archipelago, the most important island of which is Diego Garcia. It was visited in the eighteenth century by both English and French ships, and in 1784 the English made an abortive attempt to settle it from Bombay. Shortly afterwards it was annexed by the French at Mauritius, who made the island a refuge for lepers. It was subsequently taken by the Mauritians for the sake of the coco-nut industry.

[1] The saint's name was Brandanus. For the legend, see Irving's *Life of Columbus*, App. No. 25.

Diego Garcia has the shape peculiar to islands of coral formation. It is about 30 miles long, very narrow—in no part more than a $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile wide—and it forms a rough horse-shoe, enclosing a fine bay, the mouth of which is guarded by three little islets. The bay is spacious and deep enough to give a good anchorage to the largest vessels.

About twenty-five years ago it was thought that its situation in the direct line from the Red Sea to Australia would result in its being used as a coaling station. Two coal dépôts were established in the island, and for some years the Orient Liners and occasional men-of-war coaled there. The experiment was however abandoned after a few years, and the wharves and piers which had been erected were destroyed or dismantled. It is now occupied only by some 600 labourers employed in the manufacture of coco-nut oil.

In 1885 a magistrate and a small force of police were stationed on the island, but they were withdrawn when the coaling stations were abandoned, and Diego Garcia is now included in the jurisdiction of the Magistrates for the Lesser Dependencies.

Among the other islands of the Chagos Archipelago are the Peros Banhos, the Salomon, Six Îles, and Trois Frères groups.

APPENDIX

LIST OF DEPENDENCIES OF MAURITIUS

1. Rodrigues.
2. Oil Islands, including—
    - *a.* St. Brandon.
    - *b.* Agalega.
    - *c.* Coetivy.
    - *d.* Juan de Nova or Farquhar Islands.
    - *e.* Chagos Archipelago—
        1. Egmont or Six Îles.
        2. Trois Frères or Eagle Island group.
        3. Salomon or Onze Îles.
        4. Peros Banhos.
        5. Nelson Island.
        6. Diego Garcia.
3. Tromelin or Sandy Island.
4. Glorioso Islands.

SECTION IV.

THE FOLLOWING BOOKS RELATE TO MAURITIUS AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

Among the purely official publications may be specially noticed :—

The Report on the Forests of Mauritius, by Mr. R. THOMPSON, Deputy Conservator of Forests, India. Dated Aug. 23, 1880; printed for the Colonial Government.

Mr. ACKROYD'S *Report on the Dependencies of Mauritius.* Dated March 22, 1880; printed for the Colonial Government.

The following are, among others, standard works on Mauritius :—

The Annual Mauritius Almanac.

LEGUAT'S *Voyages et aventures en deux Isles désertes des Indes Orientales*, 1708, with English Translation.

GRANT'S *History of Mauritius*, 1801.

D'UNIENVILLE'S *Statistique de l'île Maurice et ses dépendances*, 1838.

PRIDHAM'S *England's Colonial Empire.* Vol. i. *The Mauritius and its Dependencies*, 1846.

PIKE'S *Subtropical Rambles*, 1873.

And for the islands of the Indian Ocean generally, reference should be made to—

FINDLAY'S *Sailing Directory for the Indian Ocean*, and the *Sailing Directions* published by order of the Admiralty.

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Section IV

CHAPTER II

SEYCHELLES

Situation.

Over 900 miles due North of Mauritius, about half way between that colony and Cape Guardafui and some 1,000 miles East of Zanzibar, lies the Seychelles Archipelago, a cluster of islands of singular beauty. The colony of Seychelles consists of these islands, forty-five in number, and of the Amirantes (including the African Banks, the St. Joseph group, and the Poivre islands), Alphonse, Providence, Cosmoledo, and Aldabra groups, which together comprise forty-four more.[1]

Discovery.

The Seychelles group is believed to have been discovered in 1506 by Pedro Mascarenhas, but the Portuguese never established a settlement there; and, to judge from the fact that they did not learn that the islands were the home of the Coco-de-Mer, cannot even have explored the group.[2]

History.

Later the islands are said to have been a favourite haunt of the pirates who infested the Indian Ocean, but the first authentic date in their history is 1742, in which year they were visited and explored by M. Lazarus Picault, acting under the orders of Labourdonnais, then Governor of Mauritius. Picault gave the group the name of Îles de

[1] Authorities differ as to the groups into which the outlying islands should be divided. The appendix to this chapter shows the classification adopted in the Letters Patent, by which the colony of Seychelles was constituted in 1903. It differs from that given in the text.

[2] Pridham states that the islands are correctly placed in French charts of the seventeenth century, in which they are called 'Isles Mascarenhas'. Col. Yule (*Glossary of Anglo-Indian Words*, 'Seychelle Islands', says that they 'were known vaguely to the Portuguese navigators of the sixteenth century as the Seven Brothers, sometimes Seven Sisters'.

SECTION IV.

Labourdonnais. This name was subsequently changed to Îles de Séchelles in honour of the Vicomte Hérault de Séchelles, Controller of Finance in the years 1754–6, at which date the islands were definitely annexed by the Government of Mauritius, but the chief island of the group still recalls by its name, Mahé, the memory of the celebrated French Governor.

In 1756 a ship was sent by M. Magon, then Governor of Mauritius, to take possession of Mahé, and the first settlement probably took place between 1769 and 1772.[1]

Capture.

In 1794 Mahé, which had been of great use to the French fleet as a port of refuge and refitment, surrendered to H.M.S. *Orpheus*, and the capitulation was renewed in 1806. No attempt, however, was made to establish a British Government in the islands until after the capture of Mauritius in 1810, when possession was taken of them and they were incorporated as a dependency of that colony, M. de Quincy, the last French Commandant, being appointed British Agent.

Administration by Mauritius.

The peace of 1814 gave Seychelles to Great Britain. From that date until 1903 the islands were a dependency of Mauritius. Until 1872 they were administered by an Agent, but in that year the administration was entrusted to a Chief Civil Commissioner, and the finances of the islands were separated from those of Mauritius. The Chief Commissioner, who took his instructions from the Governor of Mauritius, was assisted by a Board of Commissioners which included some unofficial members, and practically corresponded to the Legislative Council of an ordinary Crown colony. The Regulations issued by the Board had, when approved by the Governor, the force of law and in addition a large number of the Mauritius Ordinances were applied to the dependency. The powers of the Board were enlarged in 1874, and in

[1] This account is taken from Col. Yule's *Glossary*, and seems to be the more correct. The statement usually received is that the islands were explored in 1742, and possession taken of them in 1743, by order of Labourdonnais.

1881 an Ordinance was passed in Mauritius providing that the outlying islands, which now form part of the colony of Seychelles, should be regarded as included in the Seychelles group.[1] CHAPTER II.

In 1888 an Order in Council was issued, appointing an Administrator and establishing Executive and Legislative Councils. In 1897 the Administrator was given full powers as Governor, in the absence from Seychelles of the Governor of Mauritius, who still remained Governor of the Seychelles islands, and in 1903 this last link was severed and the islands became a separate colony under the name of 'Seychelles'. *Separation from Mauritius.*

Seychelles is now a Crown colony of the usual type, with an Executive Council of officials and a Legislative Council which includes a minority of unofficial members. *Constitution.*

The area of the Seychelles group is estimated at 103 square miles, and that of the whole colony at 148¼, about the same as that of the Isle of Wight. *Area and Geography.*

The most important islands are those of the Seychelles group, which are of granitic formation, surrounded by coral reefs. The principal is Mahé, which is 17 miles long and from 4 to 7 broad, and comprises an area of 55 square miles, i. e. about 10 square miles greater than that of Jersey. *Mahé.*

Rugged and precipitous, with mountains running up to between 2,000 and 3,000 feet, it is yet fertile and well watered. It was at one time more thickly timbered than it is at present.

In the North-East of the island are the harbour and Victoria, formerly called Mahé, the one small town in the archipelago, and the seat of government. The port is a fine one. It is formed by a bay, running into the main island, and shut in on the East, the Ocean side, by a group of small islets, its entrance being on the North. It contains a roadstead some 2½ miles long, and an inner basin bounded *Victoria town and harbour.*

[1] The Regulations issued in the Seychelles had some years before been declared by proclamation to extend to the Amirantes.

SECTION IV.

by coral reefs. Victoria is connected by cable with Mauritius and Zanzibar.

Praslin and Silhouette.

The second largest island in the group is Praslin, which takes its name from the French Minister of Marine, the Duc de Praslin, and is probably the original home of the Coco-de-Mer[1]. It lies about 25 miles to the North-East of Mahé. The island next in size to Praslin is called after the French Finance Minister, Silhouette, and deserves mention as being, next to Mahé, at once the highest and the most fertile of the group. It lies to the North-West of Mahé at a distance of some 18 miles.

Outlying islands.

Among the outlying islands may be mentioned the Amirantes group, which is supposed to have been discovered by the Portuguese, and which was occupied by the Mauritius Government in 1802, and the Aldabra group, on which the giant land-tortoise is still to be found. These groups lie respectively about 140 and 600 miles South-West of Mahé, the Aldabras being some 200 miles from the Northern extremity of Madagascar. Both groups are of coral formation. The remaining islands of which the colony is composed are not of such importance as to require special mention. Many are mere islets.

Those of them that are inhabited are occupied chiefly by fishermen, or by labourers placed on them by the proprietors or lessees, who reside as a rule in Mahé or Mauritius, to collect the fruit of the coco-nut palm, with which the larger islands are covered. From three or four islands guano is obtained, the export from the colony in 1904 amounting to some 5,000 tons.

A magistrate from Mahé visits the outlying groups periodically to investigate the condition of the labourers, and to settle any disputes that may have arisen between them and the managers of the estates.

[1] The Coco-de-Mer palm is now found in several of the other islands of the group, and there is a fine grove in the garden of Government House, Mahé.

CHAPTER II.

Although it lies not far from the Equator, Seychelles enjoys an equable and healthy climate, and the average death-rate of the population during recent years has been only between 18 and 19 per thousand. In 1904 it fell as low as 16 per thousand. The heat is tempered by the sea breeze, and the hurricanes which have so often devastated Mauritius are here unknown. The rainier half of the year is from November to April, when Northerly winds prevail.[1] *Climate.*

The first settlers in the group, men of French descent, were mainly engaged in turtle-fishing. Both the edible and the hawksbill turtle, from the latter of which the tortoise-shell of commerce is derived, are found in the waters of the colony, and tortoise-shell is still an article of trade though the amount exported has decreased in recent years.[2] *Products. Turtle and Tortoise-shell.*

Subsequently spice trees were planted at Mahé under the direction of the French Government of Mauritius. The utmost care was taken to conceal the existence of the spices from the knowledge of foreigners, and, about 1778, instructions were given by the Governor of Mauritius that, in the event of the English trying to land, all the trees were to be destroyed. The result was most fatal. A ship flying English colours, but which subsequently proved to be French, appeared off Mahé, and the whole plantation was instantly burnt. *Spices.*

For a few years at the beginning of the nineteenth century a large amount of cotton was grown and exported from Seychelles, but the competition of the United States and the lack of an adequate supply of labour led to the discontinuance of the industry. Endeavours are now being made to re-establish cotton-plantations. *Cotton.*

In recent years the principal product of the colony has been vanilla. In 1899 and again in 1901 the value of the exports of this article exceeded a million rupees. It is to be *Vanilla.*

[1] This is called in some books the season of the North-East, in others of the North-West monsoon.

[2] The shell exported in 1904 was valued at Rs. 13,667 against Rs. 76,864 in 1893.

SECTION IV.

feared, however, that the trade is now on the decline, and as a result partly of bad harvests, due to drought, and partly of the invention of an artificial substitute for vanilla, the value of the exports in 1904 fell to about Rs. 300,000.

Copra and Coco-nut oil.

The next most important articles of export are the products of the coco-nut palm, which grows luxuriantly throughout the colony. Every estate has its oil-mill, and the value of oil and copra exported averages between Rs. 300,000 and Rs. 400,000 a year.

Timber.

In addition to the coco-nut palms, Seychelles contains several varieties of fine timber, and soil and climate alike are favourable to the growth of all kinds of tropical plants, especially rubber, which is now being extensively planted.

Coco-de-Mer.

The one unique product on the archipelago is the Coco-de-Mer (*Lodoicea Seychellarum*), which grows nowhere else in the world. It is a large double coco-nut, weighing sometimes as much as 40 lb., and has been called Coco-de-Mer since the days of the Portuguese, who found the fruit on the shores of Malabar and the Maldives, but never could find the tree which bore it. For a long time it was supposed that there must be such a palm in the Maldive archipelago[1], and the nut, which in consequence of its scarcity was sold for enormous prices in India[2], was therefore given a second name after those islands: but it is now ascertained that the tree grows only in Seychelles, and that the fruit was carried by the ocean to the distant shores of Asia. The palm grows sometimes to a height of 140 feet, and takes 35 years to flower. The leaves are from eighteen to twenty feet long, and are used by the women of Seychelles for the manufacture of straw-hats and a variety of articles of artistic basket-work.

The conditions are not favourable to the cultivation of

[1] See under Maldives, p. 129.

[2] 'A single nut has been known to sell for between £300 and £400, and the Indian princes had cups made of them, ornamented with gold and precious stones.' Pridham.

rice, and therefore the inhabitants are largely dependent on external sources for their food supplies. CHAPTER II.

Population. The population of the colony at the 1901 census numbered 19,237, over 15,000 of the inhabitants residing on the island of Mahé. It is now estimated at rather over 20,000. The people are mainly of African origin, the descendants of the old slave population of the islands, recruited by Africans who have from time to time been landed from captured slave vessels. There is also a small number of white residents, mainly of French extraction. The predominant language is the Creole-French patois. English is the official language, and French is also spoken.

Religion and Education. Both the Roman Catholic and the Anglican Churches are supported by the State, the former having far the larger number of adherents. The mission schools receive grants in aid from Government, and in addition to them there is a Government School at Victoria with rather over 100 pupils.

Laws and Justice. The laws of Seychelles are mainly based on the French codes in force in Mauritius, modified first by the laws of that colony and subsequently by local Regulations and Ordinances. Justice is administered by a Chief Justice, a Police Magistrate, and several Justices of the Peace. Appeals from the Chief Justice's decisions to the Supreme Court of Mauritius are allowed in certain cases.

Finances. The revenue of the colony reached its highest point in 1901, when it amounted to Rs. 486,323.[1] Since that date it has fallen considerably owing to depression in the vanilla trade, and the estimate for 1906 is under Rs. 380,000. The revenue is mainly derived from customs, licenses, and the local rate, which is a combined income-tax, land tax, and capitation tax.

Debt. In 1900 a sum of Rs. 300,000 was borrowed from the Imperial Treasury for the construction of roads in Mahé and to provide for the cost of a survey of that island. The

[1] The currency of Seychelles is the same as that of Mauritius.

SECTION IV.

principal of the debt, with the interest on it, is being repaid in thirty annual instalments, and the amount outstanding at the end of 1905 was about Rs. 370,000. As a result of the expenditure of these funds, supplemented by payments from revenue, Mahé is now well provided with good roads and bridle paths, the total length of which amounts to nearly seventy miles.

Commerce.

The depression of the vanilla trade has, as might be expected, seriously affected the commerce of Seychelles. The value of exports has fallen from Rs. 1,853,362 in 1900 to Rs. 724,187 in 1904, and that of imports from Rs. 1,483,245 in 1901 to Rs. 801,894 in 1904. The imports come mainly from India, the United Kingdom, and France, and the exports are sent chiefly to France, the United Kingdom, and Mauritius.[1]

Obstacles to development.

Two other factors have also exercised an unfavourable influence on the colony's development—difficulties of communication with the outside world and a deficient labour supply at home.

Communications.

At present the mails are carried by the Messageries Maritimes steamers, which touch at Victoria on their course between Aden and Mauritius once a month in each direction, and the dock strikes at Marseilles have within the last two or three years caused more than one suspension of the service. Otherwise, the colony depends on the British India Company's vessels, which ply at irregular intervals between Bombay and Mombasa. It may, however, reasonably be hoped that the extension of the trade between India and East Africa will eventually bring to Seychelles the increased importance which its central position in the Indian Ocean seems to warrant. Mahé is about 1,000 miles from Zanzibar, and about 1,700 from Bombay. It lies almost on the direct line between those two

[1] It is hard to ascertain the real destination of the exports from Seychelles. Owing to the difficulty of obtaining direct transport, goods are sent to Mauritius for reshipment, and probably a large part of the exports to that colony are really destined for Bombay.

ports, and therefore its commercial development would appear to depend rather on the trade along that route than on that along the route from North to South, over which its products are mainly carried at present. CHAPTER II.

Labour difficulties.

The labour trouble is of old standing, and dates from the time of the abolition of slavery. The Seychellois are active and hardy fishermen, but they appear to entertain a dislike for regular work [1], and the planters have therefore always complained of the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number of labourers. Recently efforts have been made to remedy this evil by the introduction of Indian coolies, but the present poverty of the planters makes it difficult to organize such immigration on any large scale. At the 1901 census only 3,780 persons were returned as 'engaged in agriculture'.

Importance of Seychelles to the Empire.

Strategically, the importance of Seychelles to the Empire is rather of a negative than of a positive character. The use made of Mahé by the French during the Napoleonic wars shows that it is not desirable that the islands should be held by a foreign, and therefore a possibly hostile, Power, in whose hands they might prove a valuable naval station and a menace to British commerce in the Indian Ocean, but the possession of Aden to the North and Mauritius to the South has made Seychelles of little direct importance to Great Britain, and no attempt has been made to utilize it as a naval base. The Admiralty, however, keep a small stock of patent fuel at Victoria, and vessels of the Cape and East Indian squadrons occasionally coal there.

Political Prisoners.

The colony has at times been found of service as a place of exile for native princes whose presence in their own dominions has proved inconvenient. The ex-Sultan Abdullah of Perak passed several years at Victoria after his

[1] The report on the census of 1901 illustrates this statement. No less than 10,949 persons out of a total population of 19,237 are returned as 'persons not employed'—a category which does not include independent proprietors, political prisoners, or Government pensioners.

SECTION IV.

deposition in 1875[1], and more recently Kings Mwanga of Uganda, Kabarega of Unyoro and Prempeh of Ashanti, with other political prisoners from East and West Africa have been detained there.[2]

Summary.

In fine, it cannot be said that this little colony is, or is likely to become, a particularly valuable possession of the British Crown. It is, however, a good specimen of a tropical dependency, which maintains a fair level of prosperity by the sale of its natural products, and it possesses a certain interest of its own, as being the only habitat of the Coco-de-Mer, and one of the few places where the gigantic land-tortoise still exists, and also owing to the remarkable beauty of the islands which led General Gordon to believe that he had found in the Seychelles group the site of the Garden of Eden.[3]

[1] See under Federated Malay States, p. 223.

[2] Mwanga died at Victoria in May, 1903. It is interesting to compare the practice under the Roman Empire of deporting political offenders to one or other of the solitary islands in the Mediterranean.

[3] General Gordon convinced himself, and some others, that the Coco-de-Mer palm was the tree of the knowledge of good and evil.

APPENDIX

Schedule to the Letters Patent of August 31, 1903, giving the names of the islands of which the colony of Seychelles is composed:— CHAPTER II.

Mahé.

Islands on the East Coast.
Hodoul.
St. Anne.
Cerf.
Faon or Cachée.
Long.
Moyenne.
Round.
Beacon or Île Sèche.
Harrison Rock.
Anonyme.
South East.
Brulé or Rat.
Souris.

On the West Coast.
Chauvre Souris.
Vaches Marines.
Therèse.
Ilot de l'Islette.
Conception.

On the North Coast.
North Islet.

Other Islands.
Silhouette.
North.
Les Mamelles.
Recifs.
Frigate.
L'Ilot.
Praslin.
La Digue.
Curieuse.
Félicité.
Mary Anne.
East Sister.
West Sister.
Ave Maria Rock.
Albatross Rock.
Round.
St. Pierre.
Aride.
North Consin.
South Consin.
Booby or Île aux fous.
Denis or Orixa.
Bird or Sea Cow.
Plate or Flat.

Amirantes Archipelago.
African Islands, consisting of North, South, Eagle or Remire, and D'Arros.
St. Joseph Group, consisting of St. Joseph, Ressource, Fouquet, Benjamin, Carcassaye, Pelican, Aux Chiens, and Poule or Pol.
Poivre Islands, consisting of North, South, West, Etoile, Boudeuse, Marie Louise, Des Neufs, King Ross or Lamperiaire, and Desroches.
Alphonse Group, consisting of Alphonse, Bijoutier, and St. François.
Providence Group, consisting of Providence, Cerf or South Bank, and St. Pierre.
Cosmoledo Group, consisting of Menai, Observation Islet, Middle Islet, East Island, West Island, Goellette, Polite, Wizard, Pagoda, South and other small islets, Astove, and Assumption.
Aldabra Group, consisting of West Island, Middle Island, Cocoanut Island, Euphratis, and other small islets.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO SEYCHELLES.

In addition to official reports, most of the works cited at the end of the chapter on Mauritius contain information relating to Seychelles.

Section V

THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES IN THE MALAY INDIES

CHAPTER I

HISTORY OF EUROPEAN INTERVENTION.

Section V. *General.*

It has been pointed out[1] that the geographical outline of Southern Asia is marked by three well-defined peninsulas—Arabia, India, and the Easternmost peninsula, sometimes known as Further India, extending from Burma to Tonkin, and including Siam, Cochin China, and the Malay States. This last block of land trends away far to the South in the Malay Peninsula, which is driven as a wedge between the Indian and the Chinese Seas, just as its Malay inhabitants are interposed between the Indian and the Chinese races. Hemmed in by sea on East and West it seems as though it had expanded to the South into the numberless islands which form the Malay Archipelago.

Great Britain has a foothold in the Archipelago, as the whole of the Northern coast of Borneo has been under the protection of the British Government since 1888, and the little island of Labuan, lying close to the Borneo coast, has been a Crown colony for nearly sixty years, but by far the most important of the British dependencies in the Malay Indies are those situated in the Peninsula. The five possessions, Singapore, Malacca, the Dindings, Penang, and Province Wellesley, which together compose the colony of

[1] See Introduction, p. 3.

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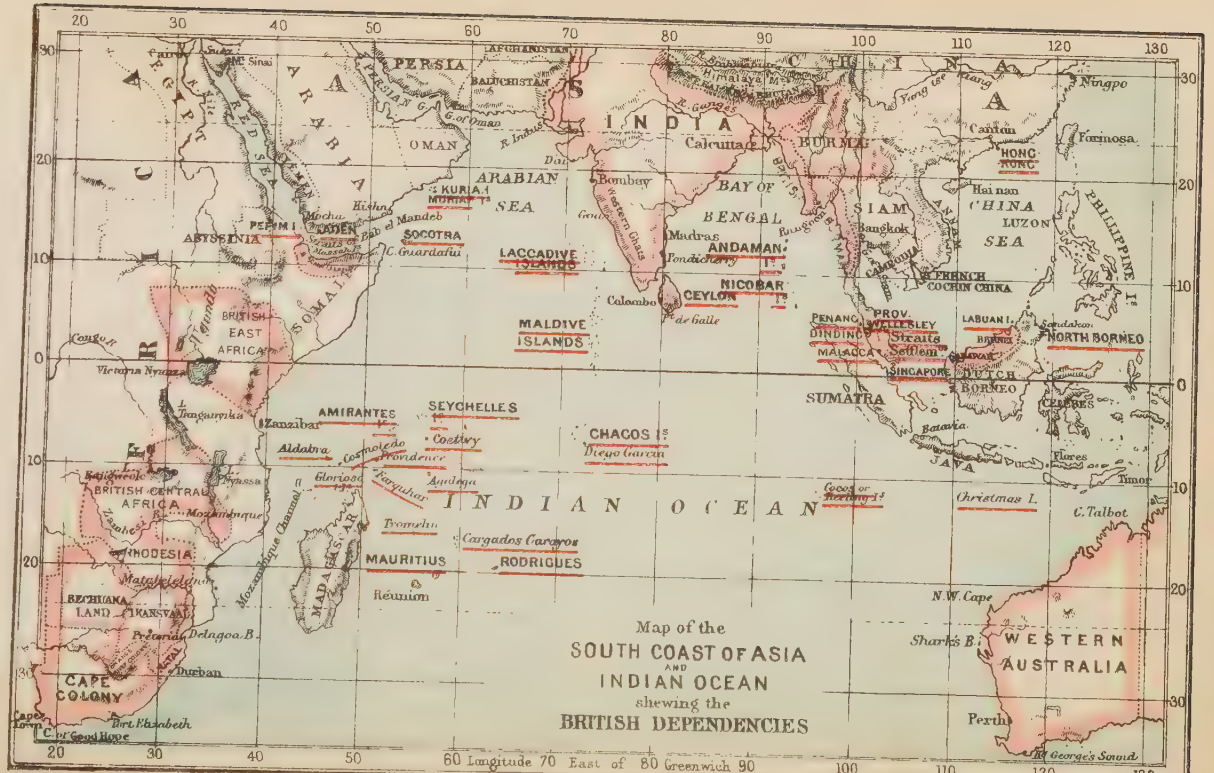
Map of the
SOUTH COAST OF ASIA
AND
INDIAN OCEAN
shewing the
BRITISH DEPENDENCIES
INDIAN OCEAN
ARABIA
PERSIA
INDIA
CHINA
BURMAH
SIAM
BAY OF BENGAL
ARABIAN SEA
RED SEA
OMAN
ABYSSINIA
SOMALI
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA
RHODESIA
BECHUANA LAND
TRANSVAAL
CAPE COLONY
MADAGASCAR
SUMATRA
BORNEO
JAVA
CELEBES
PHILIPPINE Is.
FRENCH COCHIN CHINA
NORTH BORNEO
DUTCH BORNEO
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
MAURITIUS
RODRIGUES
REUNION
SEYCHELLES
AMIRANTES
CHAGOS Is
MALDIVE ISLANDS
LACCADIVE ISLANDS
ANDAMAN Is
NICOBAR Is
CEYLON
KURIA MURIA Is
SOCOTRA
PERIM
ADEN
HONG KONG
PENANG
PROV. WELLESLEY
DINDINGS
MALACCA
SINGAPORE
Straits Settlem.
LABUAN
CHRISTMAS I.
COCOS or KEELING Is
Longitude 70 East of 80 Greenwich
Oxford University Press

the Straits Settlements[1], lie along the West and South coasts in a manner which recalls the Sicilian settlements of the great maritime and trading empire of the old world. From these centres British influence has spread over the greater part of the Peninsula and now covers an area of some 36,000 square miles, comprising the States of Perak, Selangor, the Negri Sembilan and Pahang, all of which are wholly under British control, since the native rulers have bound themselves to follow the advice of British Residents in all matters other than those touching the Mohammedan religion, and the Protectorate of Johore, which remains independent, except for the fact that its relations with foreign powers are controlled by His Majesty's Government.

The Malays.

Of the origin and affinities of the race which has given its name to the Peninsula it is not possible to speak with certainty. Some have supposed the Malays to be a continental race, which has come from the North to the Peninsula and Archipelago, and have found in them resemblances to the Mongolian races of Asia; others have thought them an island race, which has established itself on the outskirts of the mainland, and have argued that they have had a common origin, or at least a common home in prehistoric times, with the Polynesian races of the Pacific and with the Maories of New Zealand. In support of the theory of an island origin may be adduced the fact that the Malay race is widely distributed through the islands of the Eastern seas from Madagascar on the West to Japan on the East, while within historical times no settlements of Malays have existed on the mainland, except in the Peninsula, where, being essentially a maritime race[2], they have always shown a preference for living on the coast or along the rivers.

[1] In addition to the Settlements mentioned in the text, the Cocos-Keeling and Christmas Islands, lying far off in the Indian Ocean, are included in the colony for convenience of administration, and regarded as part of the Settlement of Singapore.

[2] If it could be shown that the Muruts and other tribes of the interior

SECTION V. *Aborigines of the Malay Peninsula.*

In the Peninsula, whether they came from the South, as their own traditions assert[1], or from the North, they were certainly immigrants; the aboriginal inhabitants are represented by the tribes of Semang or Pangan and Sakai or Jakuns, who are scattered over the country, living mostly in the jungles of the interior. The Semang are said to resemble the Negrito tribes found in the Andamans and the Philippine islands, while the more civilized Sakai are generally supposed to belong to the Mon-Annam family and to be akin to the races of Siam, Burma, and Indo-China. The Semang and, except where they have adopted the habits of their Malay neighbours, the Sakai pass for the most part a nomad existence, living on wild fruits, roots, and the animals which they kill with their blowpipes and bows and arrows, though some of the Sakai have a good knowledge of the cultivation of rice and tapioca. They differ from the Malays, among whom Mohammedanism has long been practically universal[2], in having no religion except a belief in good and evil spirits.

The existence of the Sakai tribes in the interior of the Peninsula has been adduced as an additional argument in favour of the island origin of the Malays, since, if the latter had been driven from the North by the pressure of a stronger race, it would have been natural to suppose that the tribes inhabiting the borderland between the two races would have been of the weaker, i.e. *ex hypothesi* the Malay, stock.

of Borneo are, as has been asserted, of Malay stock, this statement would require modification. The theory, however, of the Malayan affinities of these tribes seems to have been generally abandoned.

[1] The Malay tradition is that their race had its origin in Menangkabau in Sumatra.

[2] The Malays were converted from paganism to Islam in the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries. The first important convert recorded was the Rajah of Achin in Sumatra (1206), while the first ruler in the Peninsula to adopt the Mohammedan faith was the Sultan of Malacca (1276). The Malays are by no means bigoted Moslems, and the religion of the common people retains considerable traces of primitive devil-worship.

However, the question of the origin of the Malays is not of importance for our present purpose, as, whatever may have been their original home, the earliest authentic records of intercourse between the archipelago and the West date from a time when they had long been settled in the countries which they now inhabit.

Early mentions of the Malay Indies.

Like every other gold-producing land of the East and South, the Malay Peninsula has been identified with Solomon's Ophir.[1] To the Greek and Roman geographers of the first and second centuries A.D., it was vaguely known as the island of Chryse or the Aurea Chersonesus, and it would appear that from early times a rich trade was carried on by the Malays with India, China, and Arabia, from which latter country the spices of the Archipelago found their way to the markets of Europe. In mediaeval times Marco Polo, Friar Odoric, and other Europeans, as well as the great Moorish traveller Ibn Batuta, visited various islands of the Archipelago, and probably some parts of the Malay Peninsula during their travels in the East, but their accounts seem to have been generally forgotten or disbelieved, and these lands appear to have been regarded as new discoveries when in the sixteenth century Europe began actively to interfere in their affairs.

The famous Bull of Pope Alexander VI, which divided newly-discovered lands between Spain and Portugal, left the East to the latter, and accordingly the Portuguese were the first European nation to make their power felt in the Malay seas.

The Portuguese.

Rumours of the importance and wealth of Malacca had reached the Portuguese in India and had been by them

[1] As to the meaning of the term 'Ophir' see note on p. 71. Mr. H. Clifford (*Further India*, p. 11), quotes a passage from Josephus, definitely identifying Ophir with the Aurea Chersonesus, and refers to the interesting fact that extensive gold mines, of ancient date and of a fashion foreign to South-Eastern Asia, have been found in Pahang. He notes also that that state is the home of 'ivory, apes and peacocks'. Cp. 1 Kings x. 22.

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repeated to Lisbon, and accordingly in 1508 Diego Lopez de Sequeira was sent out from Europe with instructions to 'explore, and conquer' the city. Sequeira arrived at Malacca in the following year, but, instead of attempting to conquer the place, contented himself with obtaining the grant of a site for a factory. A dispute with the natives soon broke out, the blame being variously assigned according as the story is told by Malay or Portuguese historians, and Sequeira was obliged to retire to India. Two years later the Portuguese returned in force under the leadership of the famous Albuquerque,

Capture of Malacca.

captured Malacca, and established a fortress there—the first European settlement in the Malay seas. They held the town for 130 years in spite of more than a dozen attempts at recapture made by the Malays of Johore, Achin, and Java, and from this centre their influence spread rapidly over the greater part of the Archipelago. Till the end of the sixteenth century they held a practical monopoly of the Eastern trade, and their settlements or trading posts were to be found throughout the islands, on both coasts of the Malay Peninsula, in Burma, Siam, and Cambodia, and even as far East as China.

The Moluccas.

The most important object in their eyes was the control of the trade of the Moluccas or Spice Islands, the products of which formed the most valued part of the trade of the East. An expedition sent out by Albuquerque directly after the capture of Malacca established relations with these islands, and in the following years the Portuguese extended

The Spaniards.

their control over the main part of the group. They were not, however, left in undisturbed possession of the islands, since the Spaniards, who made their way to them by the Cape Horn route, claimed that they fell within the Spanish sphere, and the hostilities which ensued were only terminated by the purchase of the Spanish claims in 1529.[1]

[1] The main object of Magellan's famous voyage round the world was

CHAPTER I.

It may perhaps be doubted whether the resources of Portugal would, in any case, have sufficed to retain permanently her empire in the East in view of the hostility which Portuguese methods excited among the natives. Unlike the Dutch and the English, the Portuguese were not in the first instance mere traders: their king definitely laid claim to sovereignty over the kingdoms of the East in virtue of the Papal grant. From this it followed, in Portuguese eyes, that the natives had no rights which need be respected, and the record of the early proceedings of the Portuguese in the Malay seas teem with accounts, related in the most matter-of-fact manner, of glaring acts of piracy, even the great Viceroy Albuquerque himself taking part in the capture and plunder of unoffending native merchant vessels. The resentment felt by the natives at such methods, intensified by ill-advised attempts at forcing the Christian religion on the 'Moors', found vent in the constant attacks on Malacca, and in a general massacre of the Portuguese in the Moluccas (1536), and, when once a determined attempt was made by European rivals to destroy the power of Portugal, her enemies found ready assistance from the native peoples. Her fortunes waned as rapidly as they had risen, and by the middle of the seventeenth century her flag had practically been driven from the Malay seas. At the present day all the traces that remain of the great Portuguese empire in Asia are three small districts in India, the island of Macao, half of Timor, and a numerous population of Eurasians with Portuguese names in nearly every seaport of the East.

Portuguese Methods.

Decline of the Portuguese power.

Curiously enough, the loss of the possessions of Portugal is directly attributable to the circumstance which seemed at first sight most calculated to strengthen her position—the union with Spain in 1580. That union put an end to the hostile competition of the Spaniards from the Philippines,

to find a way to the Moluccas, the exact position of which was jealously concealed by the Portuguese.

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but it involved Portugal in the quarrels of Europe and brought into the East the formidable rivalry of the Dutch and English.

The Dutch.

The discovery of the Cape route to India had diverted to Lisbon the Eastern trade, which, when carried overland or by way of Aden, had formed the basis of the prosperity of Venice and Genoa. From Lisbon the products of the East were distributed through the North of Europe by the ships of the Netherlands. In the union of the crowns Philip II saw his opportunity for punishing his rebellious subjects, and the harbours of Portugal were closed to Dutch traders. But the merchants of the United Provinces were not men to acquiesce calmly in the loss of the richest branch of their trade. If they could not procure the spices of the East at Lisbon they could, and did, go to seek them in the lands from which they came, as soon as the ruin of the Spanish sea-power in the English wars gave them their opportunity. The writings of Jan van Linschoten, who had spent many years in the Portuguese possessions in the East, had given his countrymen valuable information as to the jealously-guarded secrets of the Portuguese trade and, within eight years from the date of the destruction of the Armada, Cornelius Houtman established a Dutch factory at Bantam in Java.

The Dutch East India Company.

Other expeditions followed in rapid succession, and in 1602 the numerous companies formed in the Netherlands for the purposes of the Eastern trade were amalgamated as the 'Geoctroyeerde Oost Indische Compagnie'.[1] By 1610 the Dutch possessions were of such importance that a Governor-General—Pieter Both[2]—had been appointed to supervise them. As early as 1599 a Dutch fort had been established in Amboyna in the Spice Islands, and though the garrison was soon driven out by the Portuguese, the island

[1] As to the Dutch Chartered Companies generally, cp. vol. iv of this series, p. 29.

[2] Cf. p. 146.

fell again into Dutch hands in 1605, and was the centre of the Netherlands possessions in the Archipelago until the seat of government was removed to Batavia (formerly Jakatra) in Java in 1619.

The natives of the Archipelago, from their hatred of the Portuguese, were generally favourable to the Dutch, and the influence of the latter extended even more rapidly than had that of Portugal. The foundation of their power was laid in a battle off Bantam in 1602 in which the Spanish fleet was routed, and by 1606 they were strong enough to besiege the Portuguese stronghold of Malacca—an enterprise in which they were supported by the troops of the Malay Sultan of Johore. They were compelled to raise the siege in order to go to the relief of their settlements in the Moluccas, which had been attacked by the Spaniards from the Philippines, but it was evident that the day of Portugal was over. For years, with the assistance of the Sultan of Achin, the Dutch harried the Portuguese shipping in the Straits, and in August, 1640, a combined Dutch and Achinese force blockaded Malacca, which was eventually captured in January, 1641. For the remainder of the seventeenth and the greater part of the eighteenth century the Dutch were practically supreme in the Malay seas. The bulk of the trade of Java, Sumatra, the Moluccas, the Celebes, Banda, and other islands was in their hands. In the Malay Peninsula they not only held Malacca but had at various times factories in Perak, in Selangor, on Junk Ceylon, on the Pangkor or Dinding islands, and in Ligor, while others were established in Siam, in Burma, and in Tonkin, as well as in the island of Borneo. Their exploring expeditions passed on to New Guinea and to the Australasian seas, giving Dutch names to the great lands of the Southern ocean, and their trade extended to China and Japan.

Malacca captured by the Dutch.

In the pursuit of their great object of monopolizing the trade of the Archipelago, the Dutch had not only to expel

The English.

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the Portuguese but to exclude the competition of the English, who also made their way to the East about the end of the sixteenth century.

Drake.

The first Englishman to sail through the Malay seas was Sir Francis Drake, who in 1579–80 touched at the Moluccas[1] and at Java on his famous voyage round the world; in 1586 Sir Thomas Cavendish undertook a similar voyage and landed in Java on his way home. In 1591 the first English voyage made with the definite intention of opening trade[2] with the Malay islands left England under

Lancaster.

the command of George Raymond and James Lancaster. In the course of the voyage Lancaster touched at Sumatra, Junk Ceylon, and Pulau Sembilan, off the mouth of the Perak river, and stayed for some months at Penang (1592) His expedition met at first with some success and, though it ended in disaster and Lancaster eventually made his way home without his ships, the information which he brought back, supplemented by the reports of Dr. Thorne, whose long residence at Seville had given him an extensive knowledge of Spanish and Portuguese trade, and of Ralph Fitch, who had travelled widely in the East, showed the English merchants the great profits which might be made in the Eastern trade. The impulse towards the East was strengthened by the fortunate capture by an English privateer of the

Capture of the 'Madre de Dios'.

Portuguese carrack 'Madre de Dios', on her way home from Goa (1592). The vessel had on board a rich cargo of the spices and other products of the East, and—more valuable than all her cargo—a 'Notable Register or Matricola of the whole Government and Trade of the Portuguese in the East Indies', which revealed to the captors some of

[1] He obtained from the King of Ternate a promise 'to sequester the commodities and traffique of his whole iland from others and reserve it to the intercourse of our nation'. The promise was not kept.

[2] Lancaster's methods of trade were thoroughly Elizabethan. Needing a cargo of pepper, he took one—the property of Portuguese Jesuits—out of a Peguan vessel which he met off the Perak coast.

the most carefully guarded secrets of Portugal. On this Register the memorial to Queen Elizabeth of the founders of the East India Company was mainly based.

The London East India Company.

The immediate occasion of the foundation of the Company was the fact that in 1599 the Dutch raised the price of pepper from three shillings to six or eight shillings a pound. In consequence of this, certain London merchants formed an association for the purpose of developing a systematic trade direct with the East Indies, and on December 31, 1600, a charter was granted to this association under the style of 'The London East India Company'.[1]

The first expedition organized by the new company left England in 1601 under Lancaster's command. The expedition touched first at Achin, where Lancaster entered into a treaty of commerce with the Sultan, and then went on to Bantam in Java, where was founded the first English factory in the Malay seas. Relations were also established with the native princes of the Moluccas. In 1604 another expedition under Sir Henry Middleton pushed on to the Banda islands and Amboyna, and in 1611 or 1612 Captain Hippon visited the Malay Peninsula and established an agency at Petani on its Eastern side. A number of other factories were founded in the Archipelago during the early years of the seventeenth century, and the rapid extension of English commerce quickly excited the jealousy of the Dutch, who were endeavouring to secure the monopoly of trade by offering the natives protection against other Europeans in return for exclusive trading privileges. The conflict of interests led to constant quarrels,

[1] The new or English East India Company was incorporated in 1698. In 1709, after several years of negotiation, it was definitely amalgamated with the older London Company under the name of 'The United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies'. It should be noted that at first the main object of the Company was to obtain the trade of the Archipelago, not that of India, and Bantam in Java was for many years the Company's principal post in the East. The first English trader to touch at an Indian port was Captain Hawkins who, on the Company's third voyage in 1607, visited Surat, where the first English factory in India was founded five years later.

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Dissensions between the Dutch and English.

and the English traders complained bitterly of the outrages of the Dutch, who were the stronger party and who did not stick at trifles to rid themselves of inconvenient competition. It was not long before open hostilities ensued, which the treaty of 1619, conceding the right of the English to a share in the trade, did not succeed in composing. In January, 1619, the English assisted the Javanese to besiege the Dutch fort at Jakatra: in the same year four English ships were sunk or captured off Tiku in Sumatra, and Captain John Jourdain, the first President of the London Company's settlements, was killed in an encounter with the Dutch in the Roads of Petani. In the following year, the treaty notwithstanding, the English were driven from the islands of Puloroon, Rosengyn and Lantore in the Banda group, which had been ceded to them by the natives, and in 1623 occurred the so-called 'Massacre of Amboyna', when ten English traders and a like number of Asiatics were murdered by judicial process on a charge of conspiring to seize the Dutch fort, garrisoned by two or three hundred men.

The Amboyna massacre.

This measure had the desired effect of putting an end to all English competition in the Eastern part of the Archipelago. After many years of diplomatic delays Puloroon was nominally restored to the English in 1654, all the spice-trees having first been cut down, but the Dutch succeeded in preventing the reoccupation of the island until 1663. In the following year they again seized it, and it was finally ceded to them by the Treaty of Breda in 1667. Except for a brief occupation during the French wars England never again interfered in the affairs of the 'Spice and Nutmeg islands.'

The English in Java.

In Java the English retained their position for some time longer. In 1619 the Company's servants at Bantam withdrew to India; but, returning to Java a little later, they established a factory at Batavia, and in 1629 the post at Bantam was reoccupied. In 1634–5 it again became for a

short time the headquarters of the Company's administration in the East. It was, however, evident that the Dutch were too strong in Java for it to be possible for English trade to succeed against their opposition, and when in 1682 Bantam was captured by the Dutch, the English gave up the struggle. Within two years from that date they had practically withdrawn from the island, though the factory at Bantam was not formally abolished until 1817. In 1811 a British force captured Java, and it was held as a British possession until 1816[1] but, except for that interval, the Dutch have been left to consolidate their rule in the island, which has been reputed the richest in the world, without interference by other European nations.

In spite of their abandonment of Java, and of the fact that their energies were being more and more absorbed by affairs in India, the English did not give up all hope of sharing in the trade of the Archipelago. The several attempts, which were made during the last years of the seventeenth and in the eighteenth century to establish a trade in pepper with Borneo[2] met with small success, but settlements in Sumatra were more fortunate. Lancaster's treaty with Achin has already been mentioned, and most of the earlier expeditions sent out by the Company appear to have traded with that State. In 1614 the Sultan gave permission for the erection of a factory at Tiku on the West coast, and about the same date others were founded at Achin, Priaman, Jambi, and other points on the coast, most of which, however, appear to have been abandoned in a few years, owing mainly to the opposition of the Dutch. In 1684–5, immediately after the withdrawal from Java, a more permanent settlement was

The English in Sumatra.

[1] The Dutch possessions in the Archipelago were restored in virtue of the Treaty of 1814. By the same treaty Banca Island off the South-East coast of Sumatra, which had been ceded by the Sultan of Palembang, was given to the Dutch in exchange for their settlements on the Malabar coast.

[2] See below, p. 242.

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effected, and Fort York was built near Bencoolen towards the South-West of the island. All the factories established from time to time in Sumatra were made subject to this settlement, the name of which was changed in 1714 to Fort Marlborough, and it remained the chief English post in the Archipelago down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, forming from 1763 to 1800 a separate Presidency. In 1760 it was captured and burnt by the French[1], but it was soon re-established, and continued in British hands until by the Treaty of 1824 the English possessions in Sumatra were surrendered to the Dutch in exchange for Malacca.

Treaty of 1824.

By this treaty the Dutch withdrew from the Peninsula and the English from the islands[2], and, except for the British settlements in Borneo, the state of affairs thus established has lasted until the present day, the Dutch gradually extending their supremacy over the native rulers in the Archipelago and the British over those in the Peninsula.

The English in the Malay Peninsula.

The history of the British colonies in the Malay Peninsula begins at a much later date than that of the island settlements. Captain Hippon, as has been mentioned, founded a factory in Petani in the early years of the seventeenth century, and in 1669 a small agency was placed in Kedah, but neither of these undertakings seems to have prospered, and it was not until 1786 that the English really established themselves in the Peninsula. In that year, after an unsuccessful attempt had been made to arrange for a settlement in Achin, Captain Light, acting on behalf of the East India Company, obtained from the Sultan of Kedah a grant of the island of Penang in return for an annuity of $6,000.[3] The

Cession of Penang.

[1] It is stated that in 1719 the settlers were temporarily driven out by the natives, but there seems to be some doubt as to the facts. See Danvers, *Report on the Records of the India Office*, p. 70.

[2] For many years by virtue of the Treaty of 1819 (see below, p. 194) Great Britain continued to claim certain rights in Achin. These claims were abandoned by the Hague Convention of 1871, ratified in the following year. Cf. Introduction, p. 5.

[3] Previous to the foundation of Penang the Sultan of Trengganu on the

island was occupied in the same year on the 12th of August, the birthday of George, Prince of Wales, from which circumstance the settlement acquired the name, now practically obsolete, of Prince of Wales' Island. In 1796 it was made the penal settlement for the Presidency of Bengal. In 1800 a strip of territory on the opposite mainland, comprising the greater part of the present Province Wellesley, was acquired from Kedah with a view to extirpating the pirates who infested the coast and obtaining command of both sides of the harbour. In return for this cession the annuity paid to the Sultan was raised to ten thousand dollars, an amount which is still paid yearly to his descendants. In 1805 Penang was considered of sufficient importance to be constituted a separate Presidency.[1] Meanwhile, Malacca had been taken from the Dutch (1795), and after being restored to them in 1818, was finally ceded to Great Britain, as already stated, in 1824.[2] By that time it had completely lost its old importance, having been outstripped by Penang, just as Penang in its turn has been outstripped by the newer settlement of Singapore—a possession which Great Britain owes to the foresight of Sir Stamford Raffles. Raffles, who had been Lieutenant-Governor of Java during nearly the whole of the British occupation, had long advocated the acquisition by Great Britain of posts on the Straits of Malacca in order to counteract the influence of the Dutch, who, in consequence of their stations at Malacca and in Java and Sumatra, were in a position to command the routes followed by British ships trading with China. At the end of the year 1818 he received instructions from the Marquess of Hastings, Viceroy of

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Capture and cession of Malacca.

Sir Stamford Raffles.

East coast had invited the Company to establish a settlement in his State but the offer was not accepted.

[1] It was reduced again to the rank of a Residency in 1829.

[2] The Dutch appear never to have fully established their sovereignty in the interior districts of what is now the Settlement of Malacca, and in 1831 and 1832 two small expeditions (known as 'the Naning war') were needed to enforce the British claims. As a result the boundaries were fixed where they are at present by the Naning Treaty of 1833.

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India, to strengthen the British position by entering into closer relations with Achin and by forming, if possible, a settlement on the island of Rhio. On his arrival at Penang he found that the Dutch had already obtained possession of Rhio, and, accordingly, after considering the comparative merits of the Carimon Islands and Singapore, he decided on a settlement in the latter place. Early in 1819 the Sultan and the hereditary Temenggong of Johore[1] entered into an agreement with Raffles to allow a British settlement on the island; later in the same year jurisdiction over part of it was granted.

Foundation of Singapore.

Raffles completed his mission by concluding an agreement with the Sultan of Achin which provided that the British should be allowed free intercourse with his State, that, if desired, an agent of the East India Company should be allowed to reside at his court, and that no subjects of other European Powers should be permitted to settle in his dominions, but in consequence of the negotiations with the Dutch, which resulted in the Treaty of 1824, no advantage was taken of this agreement.

Singapore was finally ceded to Great Britain in 1824, and by the treaty of that year the Dutch withdrew their opposition to the occupation, which they had based on the ground that the island was a dependency of Rhio.

For the first four years after the occupation, Singapore was a dependency of Bencoolen, but in 1823 it was made a separate Residency under the Government of Bengal. Three years later it was united with Penang and Malacca under one government, the seat of which was at Penang.

[1] At the beginning of the nineteenth century the seat of the Sultanate of Johore had been removed to the Lingga and Rhio Islands and the great nobles, such as the Temenggong in Singapore and the Bendahara in Pahang had become practically independent. (As to the meaning of these Malay titles see below, p. 258.) The Sultan who was a party to the agreement with Raffles was one of two rival claimants, one of whom was supported by the Viceroy of Rhio, the other by the Temenggong and the Bendahara.

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The new settlement gradually increased in importance[1], owing both to the natural advantages of its position and to the fact that it was from the beginning a free port, while Penang was not, and in 1837 it became the centre of the administration. Thirty years later the Straits Settlements were separated from India, and became a Crown colony.

The colony of the Straits Settlements.

Since that date the area of the colony has been increased by the cession by Perak, under the Pangkor Treaty of 1874, of the Dinding and Pangkor Islands, just North of the mouth of the Perak River, and of a small strip of the opposite mainland. This locality had long been a favourite haunt of pirates, and with a view to their suppression the islands had been ceded to Great Britain as early as 1826, but no steps had been taken to occupy them. The Pangkor Treaty also added a small strip of Perak territory to Province Wellesley. The only subsequent alterations in the boundaries of the colony have been those caused by the annexation of Christmas Island and the Cocos-Keeling Islands in 1900 and 1903.

The Native States of the Peninsula.

The establishment of British settlements on the outskirts of the Peninsula naturally entailed a certain amount of intercourse with the adjoining Malay States, and a few years after the creation of the new colony British influence began to make itself more directly felt. In 1874, in consequence of the interference with the trade of Penang caused by internal disturbances in Perak, and the resulting increase of piracy along the coast, Sir Andrew Clarke, Governor of the

[1] At the time of the cession Singapore was a place of very small importance but it lays claim to a great past. It is said to have been settled about 1160 A. D. by Javanese or Sumatran Malays. The name, Singapore or Sinhapura, is apparently of Sanskrit origin meaning 'the Lion City' (cp. Sinhala, p. 95), and commemorates the Hindu influence formerly supreme in Java. The descendants of the original settlers are said to have been expelled by Javanese in 1252 and to have withdrawn northwards and founded Malacca. Singapore has been identified with Marco Polo's 'fine and noble city of Malaiur', and De Barros in the fourteenth century refers to it as 'the celebrated city of Cingapura, to which resorted all the navigators of the Western seas of India, and of the Eastern of Siam, China, Champa and Camboja, as well as of the thousands of islands to the Eastward.'

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Straits Settlements, intervened and induced the Sultan by the Treaty of Pangkor, already mentioned, to agree to the appointment of a British Resident to assist him in the administration of his State. In the same year similar arrangements were made with the rulers of Selangor and Sungei Ujong, and in the next few years the same system was introduced into the small States, which, with Sungei Ujong, now form the Confederacy of the Negri Sembilan. In 1888 a Resident was appointed in Pahang.

Three years earlier a treaty with Johore had placed the foreign relations of that State under the control of Great Britain, provision being also made for the appointment, if thought desirable, of a British Agent at the Sultan's court.[1]

The Federated Malay States.

In 1895 a further step was taken by the union of the States of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang in a federation, known as the Federated Malay States, to be administered under the advice of the British Government, a Resident General being appointed to supervise the Residents in the four separate States.

British influence is therefore now firmly established in the Southern half of the Peninsula, the Northern part, up to the borders of Siam, being divided into a number of separate States under native rulers, who acknowledge to a greater or less extent the supremacy of the Government at Bangkok.

BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS.

The early history of European intercourse with the Malay Indies may be gathered from numerous volumes of the Hakluyt Society's publications. Among other works may be mentioned the *Report on the Old Records of the India Office* by SIR GEORGE BIRDWOOD (1891 reprint). *Report on the Records of the India Office* (1888) and *Report on the Portuguese Records relating to the East Indies* (1892) by F. C. DANVERS. *Further India* by H. CLIFFORD (1904), and SIR W. W. HUNTER'S *History of British India* (1899–1900). For an account of the founding of Singapore see *Sir Stamford Raffles* by H. E. EGERTON in 'Rulers of Greater Britain' series.

[1] No such appointment has yet been made.

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Malacca
MALACCA
Malacca R.
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MALAY PENINSULA
ENGLISH MILES
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Railways
Island of
SINGAPORE
ENGLISH MILES
0 2 4 6 8 10
Johore R.
Johore
Salat Tambrok
Old Straits
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Pulau Tekong Kechil
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Blakan Mati
St. John Is.
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Kuantan R.
PAHANG
Pahang R.
Pekan
Kuala Semantan
Temerloh
Tasek Bera
Kuala Triang
R. Rompin
Endau R.
Kuala Gemas
Mt. Ophir
MUAR
Bandar Maharam
R. Muar
JOHORE
Kluang
Kota Tinggi
Kahang
Kuala
Kuala
Kuala

Section V

CHAPTER II

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Government and administration.

The Straits Settlements are ruled under the ordinary form of Crown colony government; the constitution consisting of a Governor, an Executive Council of nine officials including the Governor, and a Legislative Council. The last consists of the Executive Council with the addition of seven nominated unofficial members. The latter are chiefly British merchants or professional men, living at Singapore or Penang, two of them representing the Chambers of Commerce of Singapore and Penang respectively: there is one Chinese member, but no representative of the Malays.

Law and justice.

The legal system of the Straits Settlements is somewhat complex. The original foundation was certain English statutes. On these were grafted acts of the East India Company and Government, until the Indian dependency became in 1867 a Crown colony. Since that date the old laws have been amended and added to by the passing of local ordinances.

The laws were, under the Indian Government, administered by a Recorder and Magistrates; now, the lower Courts are presided over by Magistrates, selected from the colony's trained civil servants, while a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges constitute the Supreme Court.

Civil Service.

Like Ceylon, Hong Kong, and the Federated Malay States, the Straits Settlements have the advantage of a regular Civil Service recruited by a competitive examination held in England in combination with the examination for the Indian Civil Service. The main offices of government are at Singa-

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pore, but Penang and Malacca are each presided over by a Resident Councillor who is at the head of a considerable staff of civil officers.

Municipalities.

The towns of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca have each a municipal board for the management of purely local matters.

Area of the Settlements.

The total area of the Straits Settlements (excluding the Cocos-Keeling and Christmas Islands) is 1,542 square miles, i. e. it is rather larger than the county of Somerset. The areas of the separate divisions are as follows:—

Singapore and islets	.	.	223 square miles
Malacca	.	.	659 „ „
Dindings	.	.	265 „ „
Penang	.	.	107 „ „
Province Wellesley	.	.	288 „ „

Singapore.

The island of Singapore lies at the extreme end of the Malay Peninsula. The strait, which divides it from the territory of Johore at the Southern end of that Peninsula, is no more than three-quarters of a mile wide, and in old days was believed to be the only navigable channel in and out of the Eastern end of the Straits of Malacca.

In shape and in its position with regard to the mainland Singapore may roughly be compared to the Isle of Wight, but it is more than half as large again. The island is some 27 miles long by 14 wide. Away from the town it consists chiefly of stretches of undulating land, studded with numerous low hills, of which the highest is not much more than 500 feet above sea level, and containing a large number of plantations of pine-apples, while small areas are devoted to the cultivation of rubber, coco-nuts, and minor products such as indigo, pepper, and citronella grass. The town of Singapore is built on the South shore of the island. The harbour, one of the greatest trading centres in the world, consists of two parts, the new and the old harbour. The new harbour, which is first reached on coming from Europe, is a narrow channel

of some $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, lying between Singapore on the North and two little islands on the South. It is thus sheltered and safe; it has deep water, and is lined on the Singapore shore by extensive wharves, where steamers of all sizes can take supplies of coal. The Eastern end of the new harbour opens into the old harbour or Singapore Roads. They have 5 miles of sea-frontage, are safe in practically all weathers, and are free of rocks, though only vessels of light draught can anchor near the shore.

The greater part of the docks were acquired by the Colonial Government in 1905 by the expropriation of the previous owners, the Tanjong Pagar Dock Company, and extensive schemes of harbour improvement are now about to be undertaken. A railway about fourteen miles in length runs from Kranji on the strait opposite Johore to the centre of the town and is being extended to the docks. When the works now in progress are completed the line will be connected by means of a train or waggon ferry with Johore-Bahru and thence, by the railway at present under construction through Johore, with the main line which runs roughly North and South through the Malay Peninsula from a point on the mainland opposite Penang.

Malacca.

About 110 miles to the North-West of Singapore along the coast of the Peninsula is the Settlement of Malacca, said to be called after a native tree of the same name (Malaka[1].) This settlement consists of a strip of mainland about 42 miles in length by 8 to 25 in breadth. About the middle of its coastline on the Malacca River is the old town, which three centuries ago was the great emporium of the Eastern archipelago. Singapore embodies all the life and prosperity of modern English trade and colonization, but Malacca, which has long been left behind by the newer settlements, is mainly interesting for its memorials of past greatness. The ruins of

[1] See Col. Yule's *Glossary*. 'Malay' and 'Malacca' may possibly be connected with each other.

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the old Portuguese cathedral, and the Stadt house, in former times the residence of the Dutch Governors, recall the European nations which once were all powerful in the Malay seas; while the scarcity of shipping in the harbour gives an impression of somnolence and decay.

Away from the town the country is hilly for the most part, the highest point rising to over 1,800 feet. It is still, to a large extent, covered with jungle. Where it has been cleared, the soil has been in great measure devoted to and impoverished by tapioca plantations: but the main products of the territory are rice and fruits, and it is on their cultivation that the considerable native population of Malacca is chiefly employed.

Recently, plantations of Para rubber have been started, and give promise of success, and a small tea estate is said to produce tea of good quality. Several tin mines of small extent are worked by Chinese.

Owing to the shallowness of the harbour and to the more favourable situation of Singapore and Penang, it is not probable that Malacca will ever recover any appreciable part of its former greatness; but the railway (recently built by the Colonial Government, and sold in 1905 to the Government of the Federated Malay States), which runs to Tampin on the Negri Sembilan border, and thus connects the town with the railway system of the Peninsula, may, it is hoped, bring to the Settlement some part of the trade of the Federated States, and thus induce a moderate degree of prosperity.

The Dindings.

Penang is 240 miles to the North-West of Malacca. Between these two settlements are the Dindings, to the North of the Perak River and some 80 miles South of Penang. They consist of a strip of mainland about 20 miles long and 10 broad, running North and South of the Dinding River, and the Dinding and Pangkor Islands, of which the latter were in old days occupied for a while by the Dutch. The

Dindings were, as already stated, taken over from Perak in 1874 in accordance with the intentions of a previous treaty of 1826.[1]

The territory is mostly covered with jungle, and fever is more prevalent there than in the rest of the colony. It has never been of any appreciable commercial value, though tin has been found there and timber of good quality has been supplied to Penang. The Dinding estuary, however, is said to be the best natural harbour on the Western side of the Peninsula, and if in the future it should be connected with the railway system of the Federated Malay States, this part of the colony may perhaps rise to importance.

For administrative purposes the Dindings form part of the Settlement of Penang.

Penang.

The island of Penang, which is said to take its name from the betel-nut[2], is about 15 miles long by 9 broad. It is more than one-third smaller than the Isle of Wight. It is divided from the mainland by a channel from two to five miles wide, which forms a fine harbour, and on the Northern end of which stands the town of Penang, properly called Georgetown. The hills in the interior of the island run up to 2,700 feet. In old days they were resorted to from India as a sanatorium, and they are still used for that purpose by the inhabitants of the Straits Settlements.

Penang is a busy commercial place with a large trade, but the wharves and docks which line the shores at Singapore are wanting here, the only dock near at hand being at Prai in Province Wellesley. The harbour has recently been improved by the erection of an iron steamer-pier.

Considerable quantities of coco-nuts are grown along the sea, and other products, of which the most important is padi, are also cultivated.

[1] See above, p. 195.

[2] Bûah Pînang is the Malay name for the areca or betel-nut, which the island was supposed to resemble in shape.

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Province Wellesley.

Province Wellesley fronts Penang on the mainland, and stretches for about 45 miles along the coast, its average width being from eight to ten miles. It contains rich alluvial soil, and grows large quantities of rice and sugar, while considerable areas are devoted to plantations of tapioca, coconuts, and rubber. Both in Province Wellesley and Penang a large amount of granite is quarried.

A railway, part of the trunk line of the Peninsula, constructed and owned by the Government of the Federated Malay States, runs through Province Wellesley from the Perak border on the South to Prai on the coast opposite Penang, with which it is connected by a steam-ferry.

Population.

The population of the Straits Settlements at the last census—that of 1901—amounted to 572,249.[1]

Comparing the Settlements,

Singapore had a population of	228,555
Penang	128,830
Province Wellesley	115,264
Malacca	95,487
The Dindings	4,113

Throughout the colony the Europeans numbered in all 5,058, and the Eurasians (mainly of Portuguese extraction) 9,663, while the Malays and Chinese numbered respectively 215,058 and 281,933, and the natives of India 57,150, principally Tamils.

In Singapore the Chinese outnumbered the Malays, while in the other Settlements the reverse was the case.

Chinese and Indians.

More energetic, more industrious, and more difficult to govern than the Malays, the Chinese are constantly increasing in numbers in the colony and the neighbouring States. The Malay Peninsula, as has already been suggested, is the dividing line between the Indian and Chinese seas, and the Indian and Chinese races; consequently in the

[1] Including the garrison of some 1,200 men and the floating population of the harbours.

Straits Settlements Indians and Chinese are found meeting on Malayan ground.[1] The Chinese, however, have immigrated in far greater numbers than the Indians, and are a stronger and more important element in the population. As traders and workmen they are everywhere to the fore, and the colony owes much to their industry, but at the same time they cause a large amount of public expenditure in the matter of police, Protectors of Chinese, and other officials who are required to keep order among them, to counteract the efforts of their secret societies,[2] and to safeguard the freedom of women and children.

Religion.

There is as strange a medley of religions in the Straits Settlements as of races. Mohammedanism, Buddhism, Brahminism are professed respectively by the Malays, the Chinese, and certain classes of the Indians. Of the Christian creeds Roman Catholicism has the largest number of adherents, especially among the residents of Portuguese descent. In the Malay Peninsula, as elsewhere, the Roman Catholic missionaries in past days stood in front of their Protestant rivals in power of and possibly in zeal for conversion; and the religious work done by Xavier and his followers lasted, while the political and administrative system of Portugal crumbled away. The Church of England is the only religious body which is subsidized by the Government, and a moderate sum is voted on the annual estimates for its support at each of the three Settlements of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca.

[1] By far the greater proportion both of the Chinese and Indian inhabitants are immigrants. There is, however, a large and growing element of both races which has been born in the colony. In 1901 the Straits-born Chinese numbered over 44,000 as against about 35,000 in 1891. The number of Straits-born Indians was not ascertained, but it is known to be steadily increasing.

[2] These societies have occasionally been the source of much trouble in colonies where there is a Chinese population. They were, in their origin, purely political, representing national discontent against the Manchu government of China. The members of each society are bound together by a kind of freemasonry; and some of the societies possess a strong organization and considerable funds.

SECTION V. *Currency, Finances, &c.*

The standard coin of the Straits Settlements is a silver dollar divided into 100 cents. Up to 1903 the dollars in use were the British and Mexican, current in China and elsewhere in the East, but in that year, with a view to eventually fixing the rate of exchange, a special Straits Settlements dollar was introduced.[1] It has now been adopted in the Federated Malay States and Johore, as well as in Labuan and the British protectorates in Borneo.[2]

In 1868, the first year of the Crown colony's existence, the revenue amounted to about $1,300,000. In the next twenty years it rose to nearly $4,000,000, and in 1904 it amounted to nearly $10,750,000, the expenditure being rather over that sum.[3] The greater part of the revenue is derived from the opium farm,[4] which in 1904 produced $6,337,000, so that the Chinese are the largest contributors to the colony's exchequer. The next most important sources of revenue in 1904 were the spirit farm ($1,200,000), posts and telegraphs ($508,216), stamps ($447,718), and land revenue ($372,847).

There is no revenue from customs as all the ports of the colony are free.

A great part of the expenditure has in recent years been devoted to public works, such as the Singapore and Malacca railways. The colony contributes 20 per cent. of its revenue, after making certain deductions, to the cost of the Imperial garrison.[5]

[1] Early in 1906 the rate of exchange was fixed at 2*s.* 4*d.*

[2] The coinage of the Straits Settlements also circulates largely in the tobacco-planting districts of Sumatra, and in the Siamese Malay Straits.

[3] In comparing the various figures given in this and the following chapters, it should be remembered that the exchange value of the dollar has fallen greatly in recent years. In 1904 it was only about half as much as in 1868.

[4] The opium and spirit farmers have the monopoly of importing opium for sale in the colony and of levying the duties prescribed by law on all liquors imported.

[5] Similar contributions are paid by Hong Kong, Ceylon, and Mauritius, though the percentage in the two latter cases is smaller.

Products, Trade, &c.

The Straits Settlements have become prosperous rather by importing, selling, and exporting what has been produced elsewhere, than through any agricultural or mineral treasures at home. Gambier, pepper and other spices, sago, tapioca, rice, sugar, gutta-percha, rubber, indigo, coco-nuts, fruits, and timber trees of various kinds, are raised within the limits of the colony; but the produce of Malayan soil, tin, rattans, gutta-percha, rubber, coffee, gums, &c., which is shipped from the ports of Singapore and Penang, comes mainly from the Native States of the Peninsula and from the islands of the Archipelago.

The works of the Straits Trading Company on Pulau Brani, one of the islets adjacent to Singapore, smelt some 70 per cent. of the world's supply of tin, but, with this exception, the industries of the colony are of little importance.[1] It owes its prosperity to the favourable position of its ports, which stand where the trade routes to India and Europe converge from China, Australia, and the Malay Archipelago.[2] The ships which frequented its harbours in 1904, exclusive of native craft, had a total tonnage of over 18¼ millions, and the imports and exports were valued respectively at $325,868,023 and $255,438,661, exclusive of the inter-settlement trade.

Education.

The greater part of the schools in the colony are vernacular schools for Malays, under the direct control of the Government: they numbered 173 in 1904. In Malacca and Province Wellesley attendance at these schools is compulsory. Other schools, both Government and Grant-aided, provide instruction in English, and there are also vernacular schools for Chinese and Tamil children. Higher education is provided for by the Raffles Institution at Singapore, recently

[1] Next to tin-smelting the principal industry of Singapore is canning pineapples.

[2] Singapore is about 1,600 miles from Colombo, rather more than 1,600 from Calcutta, over 1,400 from Hong Kong, about 700 from Labuan, 500 from Batavia and about 1,000 from Port Darwin in Australia.

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taken over by the Government, the Free School at Penang, the High School at Malacca, and by the schools of the American Mission at Singapore and of the Christian Brothers at Singapore and Penang. The Government gives yearly two scholarships, which enable the holders to complete their education at an English University. A Medical School has recently been established at Singapore, and scientific and commercial instruction is given at the Raffles Institution. There are training classes at Singapore for teachers in English schools, and a training college for Malay teachers has been established at Malacca.

Climate and Rainfall.

Situated as the Straits Settlements are in the very heart of the tropics (for Singapore is between 1 and 2 degrees, and Penang between 5 and 6 degrees, to the North of the Equator,) their climate is yet not as hot as that of many other tropical countries; and it is only oppressive or injurious to European constitutions on account of the dampness of the atmosphere and the want of change in temperature throughout the year. The thermometer varies little from one day to another during the twelve months[1], and the sole changes are those caused by the monsoon winds, the South-West monsoon prevailing from May to September, the North-East from October to April. The latter months are also marked by occasional squalls of wind and rain, called Sumatras because of the direction from which they come, but cyclones and other similar atmospheric disturbances are unknown within the limits of the colony. The rainfall varies very much in the different Settlements, and from year to year. At Singapore it averages about 85 inches a year, in Malacca about 90, and in Penang about 120.

The death-rate of the colony in 1904 was 39 per mille. It has had the good fortune, up to the present time, to

[1] In 1904 the range of temperature was in Singapore from 86·7 to 72·8, in Penang from 89·3 to 93·9, in Province Wellesley from 91·6 to 73·2, and in Malacca from 89·5 to 70·5.

escape practically untouched by the bubonic plague, which is so terrible a scourge in India and Hong Kong. The most prevalent disease among Asiatics in the colony, as in the Federated Malay States, is the wasting sickness known as 'beri-beri', the origin of which is still obscure.

General Summary.

As the Straits Settlements were originally an appendage of India, so the combination of a Crown colony with native principalities, nominally independent but really under the protection and control of the English Government, reproduces on a small scale the system which is carried out in India; and this combination gives a special interest to the Straits Settlements, as compared with most other colonies.

They hold in the British Empire a position half-way between those colonies which are directly valuable on account of their territory and resources, and those which are valuable more indirectly as stepping-stones from one part of the world to another, as military or naval stations, as ports of call, or as emporia of trade. It is true that Singapore and Penang have but small area and resources, and that the wealth of Malacca and Province Wellesley is slight; but the Native States, described in the following chapter, are so completely under British influence, and the outlet of their trade is so entirely through the ports of Singapore and Penang, that it is impossible to leave them out of sight in taking a general view of the colony.

Even, however, if the interior of the Peninsula had been barren and worthless instead of teeming with mineral wealth, the position of Singapore and Penang must still have made the colony one of the most valuable of the dependencies of the British Crown both as a trading centre and as a naval base.

As already mentioned, the colony of the Straits Settlements includes not only the British possessions in the Malay Peninsula, but also two other dependencies lying far out in the Indian Ocean—the Cocos-Keeling group and Christmas Island.

THE COCOS-KEELING ISLANDS

SECTION V. *History.*

The Cocos or Cocos-Keeling islands, called after Captain Keeling[1], who is said to have discovered them on his way from the Moluccas in 1609, are a coral group lying more than 700 miles to the South-West of Java, and on the direct route from Ceylon to Australia.

A Scotchman, Captain J. Clunies Ross, landed on their shores in 1825, and returned with his family and a few other companions in 1827. He found that an Englishman, Alexander Hare, formerly Commissioner at Banjarmasin in Borneo, had in the meantime come over from Bencoolen in Sumatra with a Malay following and settled in the islands which were previously uninhabited. Most of Hare's party, however, joined the later colony, and after a while Hare withdrew to Singapore, leaving Ross in undisputed possession of the group. The Ross family has remained there ever since, its members intermarrying with the Cocos-born Malays. The present proprietor, Mr. George Clunies Ross, is the grandson of the first colonist. Darwin visited the islands in 1836, and has left an account of them in the *Voyage of the Beagle* and *Coral Reefs*. The Ross family appear at first to have flown the Dutch flag on their trading schooners, but it was never hoisted in the islands, which remained unclaimed by any of the great Powers until 1857, when Captain Fremantle, in the *Juno*, took possession of them on behalf of the British Government, recognizing the father of the present owner as Superintendent. In 1878 Letters Patent were issued appointing the Governor of Ceylon to be Governor of the Cocos-Keeling islands, and in 1886 the Governor of the Straits Settlements was substituted in his place. In 1902 the establishment on Direction Island, in

[1] Captain William Keeling was in command on the third voyage organized by the then newly established English East India Company, in the years 1606 9. There is an inscription to him in Carisbrooke Church, Isle of Wight.

the North-Eastern part of the group, of a station on the Cape-Australia cable route, led to a further change. Legal difficulties arose in connexion with the trial of one of the Telegraph Company's coolies for murder, and, as a consequence, it was found necessary to annex the islands to the Straits Settlements, the laws of the colony, with a few exceptions, being applied to the islands. CHAPTER II.

Practically, however, the change has made no difference. The head of the Ross family has the powers of a magistrate, and acts as the local representative of the Government of the Straits Settlements, and the actual interference of the Colonial Government is confined to the dispatch of an officer to visit and inspect the islands once a year.

Description.

With the exception of the North Keeling island, which lies some fifteen miles to the Northward of the rest, all the islands, which are over twenty in number, lie close together in a horse-shoe shaped ring or atoll. They vary greatly in size, some being from one to seven miles in length, while others are mere mounds of sand. They are all thickly covered with coco-nut palms. The inhabitants live mostly on Settlement or New Selima island in the North-Eastern part of the atoll.

Climate, &c.

The climate is healthy, and the water-supply good, so that there is little sickness among the inhabitants. The disease most dreaded here, as in the Malay Peninsula, is beri-beri, but very few cases have occurred in recent years. The only serious inconvenience to which the inhabitants are exposed is that the islands lie in the region of cyclones, which have more than once laid waste the settlement and destroyed great numbers of the coco-nut trees.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants are partly Cocos-born, partly Bantamese engaged in Batavia. In June, 1904, the former numbered 571 and the latter 67; the population also included two Europeans[1]. In former years the labour market of the

[1] The figures here given do not include the employés of the Telegraph

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Cocos islands, like those of much greater lands, was supplied from criminal sources, convicts from Batavia being sent over to work [1], but this element of the population is happily now extinct.

Trade, &c. The chief occupations of the inhabitants are fishing, gathering coco-nuts, and preparing copra, of which some hundreds of tons are exported yearly. Copra forms at present the only export, but deposits of phosphate, which may prove to be of commercial value, have been found on the North Keeling island. No attempt has yet been made to work them Coco-nut oil was at one time manufactured and exported, but this industry has now been abandoned. The Cocos islanders have shown themselves to be skilled boat-builders, various small schooners and boats used in the copra trade having been constructed locally.

Pridham, writing in 1846 [2], states that the trade of the islands was at that time with Mauritius, which lies nearly 2,500 miles away, rather to the South of West, but their products are now sent either to Batavia or direct to Europe.

Currency. The currency of the islands consists of sheepskin notes, issued by Mr. Ross. The basis of the currency is the Dutch guilder, the Cocos note being valued at five-sixths of the Dutch coin.

Education. The education of the children is provided for by a small school, taught by a Cocos islander who has been trained at Singapore.

General. The islands have no great natural wealth, but their resources suffice to maintain the little community which appears to live in perfect contentment under the patriarchal rule of the Ross family, crime being practically unknown. They bring in no revenue to the colony of which they nominally form part, but on the other hand they entail no

Company, who live on Direction Island and hold little or no intercourse with the Cocos islanders. They number about 30, mostly Chinese.

[1] Compare the case of Mauritius p. 133.

[2] *England's Colonial Empire*, p. 300.

expense beyond the cost of the annual visits of inspection, and they are of some use to the Empire since, owing to their position in the Indian Ocean, they afford a convenient halting-place for the cable from the Cape of Good Hope to Australia.

CHRISTMAS ISLAND

Situation. Christmas Island lies in the Eastern part of the Indian Ocean, between 500 and 600 miles rather to the North of East from the Cocos-Keeling islands, about 900 miles to the North-West of Australia and 190 miles due South of Java.

History. Nothing is known of the circumstances or the date of the discovery of the island nor of the origin of its name. It is first shown in a Dutch map of 1666, in which it is called Moni, and in later maps it appears sometimes under that name and sometimes under that of Christmas Island. The first recorded visit to the island was made by Dampier in 1688, his ship having been blown out of its course on the way from New Holland to the Cocos Islands. Subsequently other vessels touched at it, but for two centuries no serious attempt was made to explore it, owing partly to the difficulty of finding a suitable anchorage and partly to the steepness of the cliffs by which it is surrounded, and to the thickness of the vegetation. In 1886 it was visited by the surveying vessel, *Flying Fish*, which succeeded in finding a good anchorage on the north coast, at a point now called Flying Fish Cove, and in the following year it was explored by a party from H.M.S. *Egeria* who cut a way to the interior of the island.

One of the results of this exploration was the discovery of valuable specimens of phosphate of lime, and in consequence it was decided to annex the island. The annexation was proclaimed in 1888, and by Letters Patent issued in January of the following year the Governor of the Straits Settlements was made *ex officio* Governor of Christmas

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Island, with power to annex it to the Straits Settlements when it was considered desirable.

Up till 1888 the island was uninhabited, but in November of that year a small settlement was formed there by some members of the Ross family from the Cocos-Keeling islands, accompanied by a few Bantamese and Cocos-Keeling natives.

In 1891 a lease of the island was granted to Mr. George Clunies Ross and Sir John Murray, who, in 1897 formed a company to work the phosphate deposits, which proved to be very extensive and of exceptional purity. The company obtained a lease for ninety-nine years from the Government of the Straits Settlements in return for the payment of a small rent and a royalty on phosphates and timber exported. In 1900, principally in order to avoid legal difficulties in connexion with the imprisonment of persons convicted of offences committed on the island, it was annexed to the Straits Settlements, the laws of that colony being applied to it with a few exceptions.

Area, &c.

The area of Christmas Island is about 43 square miles, which is slightly less than that of Jersey. Its shape is roughly that of a parallelogram with very deeply indented sides, its greatest length being about twelve and its greatest width about nine miles. It forms the summit of a submarine mountain over 15,000 feet high and rises to a height of about 1,000 feet above sea-level.

Products, &c.

Christmas Island is densely wooded and contains some valuable timber, including a variety of teak, but its chief importance is derived from the deposits of phosphate, formed by the action of guano on the limestone of which it is mainly composed. In 1904 over seventy thousand tons of phosphate were exported and the royalty paid to the Government of the Straits Settlements amounted to nearly £5,000.

The island contains several varieties of birds and small animals, not found elsewhere, including a large green fruit-pigeon and two species of rats.

The Straits Settlements Government is represented by a District Officer, who performs the duties of a magistrate and has charge of a small force of Sikh Police. The only other inhabitants, besides the District Officer and his staff, are the employés of the Christmas Island Phosphate Company. The total population at the end of 1904 was 968, including 868 Chinese coolies. CHAPTER II. *Population.*

Several serious outbreaks of beri-beri have occurred in the last few years, the Chinese coolies being the chief sufferers; otherwise there is very little sickness among the inhabitants. The temperature is moderate, averaging about 83°. *Health.*

BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

In addition to the usual annual reports and other official publications, may be mentioned the annual *Straits and Singapore Directory*, and the *Journals* of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. *A Monograph of Christmas Island* by C. W. ANDREWS (1900) contains a very full account of that dependency.

Section V

CHAPTER III

THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES AND JOHORE

Section V. *General.*

A range of mountains of granitic formation, rising in places to a height of over 7,000 feet, runs through almost the whole length of the Malay Peninsula. On either side, sloping down to the sea, lies a belt of land, thickly covered with tropical forest and watered by almost innumerable streams, some of which are navigable for shallow-draught steamers for more than fifty miles from their mouths. These lands are divided into a number of separate States, the Southernmost of which are, as has been seen, under the protection of Great Britain.

The Southern extremity of the Peninsula is occupied by the State of Johore, to the North of which lie the four Federated Malay States—Pahang on the Eastern coast and the Negri Sembilan, Selangor and Perak on the Western.

The Federated Malay States.

The Federation, as already stated, dates from 1895, in which year an agreement was entered into by the Governor of the Straits Settlements, acting on behalf of the British Government, and the Rulers of the four states, which confirmed the existing treaties with the several contracting States and constituted the present Federation.

The Federation did not confer on the Government of any of the States a right to interfere in matters outside its own borders, but it provided for mutual assistance[1] and for administrative uniformity under the control of a Resident

[1] An interesting feature is the periodical Durbar at which the rulers of the several States, with their Councils and a host of followers, meet and spend some days in discussing matters of common interest.

General, who supervises the Residents in the several States, and is responsible to the Governor of the Straits Settlements, who is His Majesty's High Commissioner for the Federation.

Administration.

The government of each state remains in the hands of the State Council[1], who pass the laws, which are as far as possible uniform in all the States; but most of the principal departments of the service have been placed under the charge of Federal officers, and several of them, e.g. the police, the railways, the forest department, and the Malay States Guides have been made completely Federal, the expenditure and receipts being divided among the States. The Government servants in each State are required to serve, if necessary, in any part of the Federation. The headquarters of the Federated Malay States are at Kuala Lumpur in Selangor.

Within each State the administration is under the control of the Resident, whose advice the Sultan is bound by treaty to follow, except in matters affecting the Mohammedan religion. He is assisted by a staff of civil servants, selected, in the same manner as in the Straits Settlements, by a competitive examination held in England.

Justice is administered by Magistrates in each State and by a Supreme Federal Court, from which in important cases an appeal lies to the Privy Council in England.

Internal order is provided for by a strong force of Sikh and Malay police under European officers, and the Federation maintains a regiment (the Malay States Guides) of Sikhs and Pathans, officered from the British or Indian armies and available for service in the Straits Settlements in the event of war.

[1] The State Council is composed of the Sultan (in the Negri Sembilan the Yang-di-per-Tuan) and the leading Malay chiefs, the British Resident and, except in Pahang, the Secretary to the Resident and some of the leading Chinese inhabitants. In Perak and Selangor the Council also includes representatives of the unofficial European community.

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Products.

The soil and climate of the Malay Peninsula are well adapted to the growth of every kind of tropical product. The forests, which still cover a great part of the interior, provide several species of gutta and rubber, rattans and resin, and many kinds of valuable timber. Of cultivated products the most important are rice, Indian corn, sugar, tapioca, coco-nuts and coffee, while the Para rubber, which has been extensively planted in recent years, will undoubtedly in the near future be one of the chief articles of export from the Peninsula. Pepper, sago, nutmegs, cardamoms, indigo, and numerous varieties of fruit are also cultivated. Tobacco is grown to a small extent by the natives, and an experimental plantation in Perak has shown that tea of good quality can be produced.

Agricultural Resources.

The agricultural resources of the Federated Malay States have, however, never been fully exploited, owing to the superior attractions hitherto offered by tin mining. Regular work is distasteful to the Malay, and imported Chinese labour goes mainly to the mines. As a result, the Federation, in spite of the fertility of its soil, does not even grow the amount of rice required for the support of its population. An Agricultural Department has recently been established and the demand for rubber is attracting to agriculture an attention which has been lacking since the fall in the price of coffee made planting unremunerative, but the main wealth of the Federated Malay States is now, and probably will continue to be for many years to come, derived from its great mineral resources.

Minerals.

Gold, silver, lead, iron, copper, and other metals are found in many parts of the Peninsula, but by far the most important of the products of the Federated Malay States is tin.

Tin.

The tin deposits of the Peninsula have been worked for centuries, and the main reason for the establishment of the early European factories on the coast was the desire to

acquire control of the trade in this metal, but the mining industry has been greatly developed in the Federated Malay States since the introduction of a settled Administration, and they now produce from 70 to 75 per cent. of the world's supply of tin. The output in 1904 was valued at nearly £6,250,000, though extensive mine fields still remain practically untouched, especially in Pahang.[1]

Finances.

The Government levies an export duty on tin, fixed on a sliding scale, which varies with the market price of the metal; and in 1904 the receipts from this tax in the four states amounted to nearly 9 million dollars.

Export duties are also levied on gold and other minerals and on various agricultural and forest products, and opium and spirits are subject to an import duty. The total receipts from Customs in 1904 amounted to over 11 million dollars. The other main sources of revenue are railway receipts, licenses, lands, and posts and telegraphs.

The progress made by the Federated States in recent years may be gauged from the fact that in 1889[2] their combined revenues amounted to a little over 5 million dollars (Perak $2,776,583; Selangor, $1,828,427; Negri Sembilan, $377,600; Pahang, $30,390), while in 1904 they exceeded 22¼ millions (Perak, $11,332,272; Selangor, $8,241,766; Negri Sembilan, $2,223,005; Pahang, $458,226), the value of imports having increased in the same period from under 16 millions to nearly 47 millions and that of exports from about 19¾ to over 77½ millions.

In consequence of this prosperity the Government has been able not only to provide for the ordinary work of administration and for the establishment of schools in every town and important village in the Federation and of hos-

[1] In Pahang with a view to encouraging the mining industry, the export duty has been fixed at 10% ad valorem instead of on a sliding scale.

[2] This is the first year for which complete figures are available as Pahang only received a British Resident in 1888.

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pitals in all the principal districts, but to spend large sums in the construction of extensive systems of railways, roads, and telegraphs, while at the same time laying by considerable balances for the future.

Railways.

The total length of railways now open exceeds 400 miles. The main line runs through all the Western States, beginning at Prai in Province Wellesley and ending at Kuala Gemas on the border between the Negri Sembilan and Johore, from which point it is now being extended through the latter State to Johore Bahru on the strait opposite Singapore.[1] A series of branches connects the main line with the principal ports of the Western coast, one line, the oldest in the Federated Malay States, running from Taiping in the North of Perak to Port Weld, another from Tapah in the South of the same State to Teluk Anson on the Perak river, and others from Kuala Lumpur in Selangor to Port Swettenham, from Seremban in Sungei Ujong to Port Dickson, and from Tampin in the South of the Negri Sembilan through colonial territory to Malacca. A short line connects Kuala Lumpur with the Batu Caves to the North-East. The Seremban-Port Dickson line belongs to the Sungei Ujong Railway Company and is worked under a Government guarantee; the remaining lines are all the property of the Government, which has recently, as stated in the preceding chapter, purchased the Malacca-Tampin line from the Government of the Straits Settlements. Various schemes have at times been put forward for the extension of the railway system to Pahang but up to the present time no route has been definitely decided upon.

Population.

The population of the States at the census of 1901 was 678,595[2] (Perak, 329,665; Selangor, 168,789; Negri Sembilan, 96,028; Pahang, 84,113). The Malays and other natives of the

[1] The money for the Johore section has been advanced by the Government of the Federated Malay States and the work of construction is being undertaken by the Railway Department of those States.

[2] In 1904 it was estimated at about 838,000.

Archipelago, including the few thousand aborigines of the Peninsula, numbered 312,486, and the Chinese 299,729; while there were about 58,000 natives of India, 1,422 Europeans, and 1,522 Eurasians. Both the Chinese and the Indian elements are rapidly increasing owing to constant immigration, and the former probably now exceed the Malays in number. In 1901 they were more numerous than the Malays in Perak and Selangor, especially in the latter State where the numbers were respectively 108,768 and 40,384. In the Negri Sembilan the position was reversed, the Malays numbering 56,917, and the Chinese 32,901, while in the undeveloped State of Pahang there were only 8,695 Chinese to 73,462 Malays. A striking feature of the census returns is the great disproportion between the sexes, the males outnumbering the females by nearly 300,000. This state of affairs is due to the large immigrant element in the population, the Indians seldom and the Chinese scarcely ever bringing their wives with them.

Immigrants.

The immigrants, who are nearly all Chinese or Indians, though there is a small element of Javanese, provide practically the whole of the labour force of the States, since the native Malays will seldom enter into long or permanent engagements. The greater part of the Chinese are employed in the mining industry, but their energies are not confined to one channel, and it is impossible to over-estimate the importance of their share in the development of the States. They not only work but own most of the mines: they are the principal importers and exporters of all kinds of goods; the chief shopkeepers, house-builders, artisans, blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, cart-drivers, rikisha-pullers, domestic servants, and laundry-men. A few thousands are engaged in cultivation, and recently the experiment has been made of importing Chinese with their families to form agricultural colonies. The natives of India, who are mostly Tamils, are chiefly employed as estate labourers or on the construction

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of the railways and other public works. The Europeans are, as a rule, Government servants or planters, and the Eurasians are chiefly employed as clerks or in the lower grades of the Government service.

Climate.

The climate of the Federated Malay States is not unhealthy, though, as in the neighbouring colony, it is trying to Europeans owing to the lack of seasonal variations. To remedy this inconvenience as far as possible, the Government has established sanatoria on the highlands of Perak, Selangor, and the Negri Sembilan, and on the coast of the latter State. The temperature varies considerably in different districts; in the lower and more populated parts of the States it is as a rule between seventy and ninety degrees. The rainfall is heavy, varying from between 100 and 170 inches in some of the hill districts to between 70 and 100 inches in parts near the coast: the wettest season is from October to December.

Health.

Previous to the British intervention, the natives suffered severely from epidemics of small-pox and cholera, which still cause great loss of life in the Siamese dependencies to the North, but there is now little mortality from these diseases in the Federated Malay States. Europeans suffer from the fevers usual in the tropics, though these are not as a rule of a severe type; among Asiatics, and especially among the Chinese, the most fatal diseases are beri-beri[1] and dysentery. Leprosy exists in the Peninsula, though it is not common. A leper asylum for Malays has been established on the island of Pangkor Laut in the Dindings, to which cases occurring in the Federated Malay States are sent. Chinese and other foreign lepers are treated at an asylum at Taiping in Perak and in the Straits Settlements leper asylum on Pulau Jerejak, near Penang.

Fauna.

The fauna of the Peninsula is varied and includes the

[1] See page 207 above.

elephant, rhinoceros, bison, sambhur and other species of deer, wild pig, the Malay bear, panthers, leopards, and wild cats, while tigers are very numerous. Pythons, cobras and many other snakes are common, and the alligator and gavial are found in the rivers. There are also many species of monkeys and apes, including the gibbon.[1] Pea-fowl are found in the jungles of Pahang, and the Argus pheasant and many other kinds of birds are common throughout the States. CHAPTER III.

PERAK

Situation.

The Northernmost of the States is Perak, the richest and most important member of the Federation. On the North it marches with Province Wellesley and the Siamese dependency of Kedah, on the North-East with Rahman, another Siamese dependency. To the East the central mountain range of the Peninsula divides it from Kelantan and Pahang, and on the South the River Bernam forms the boundary between Perak and Selangor. The Western side of the State is washed by the Straits of Malacca, except where the colonial territory of the Dindings intervenes.

History.

Little is known of the early history of Perak but, according to native tradition, a Malay kingdom was first established at Bruas on the coast of the Larut district. Later the seat of government was transferred to Temong on the Perak river. After the Portuguese capture of Malacca in 1511, a Rajah of the royal house of that State is said to have established himself as Sultan in Perak, and the present ruling family traces its descent from him. In later years tradition records two invasions by the Achinese in which members of the ruling house were carried as prisoners to Sumatra, one of these captives, Mansur Shah, subsequently becoming Sultan of Achin. The first Europeans who entered into relations with

The Dutch in Perak.

[1] The orang-outan is not found in the Peninsula, but the name, which means 'wild man', is applied by the Malays to the aboriginal tribes.

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Perak were the Dutch who in 1650, in accordance with an arrangement with Achin, of which country the State was then a dependency, established a factory on the Perak river and obtained an undertaking that the tin trade should be confined to the Dutch and Achinese.

In the next year the traders were massacred and the factory destroyed and, though the settlement was re-established four years later, it did not prosper, and was again abandoned in 1661. A fort subsequently erected in the Dindings was also soon abandoned, and the Dutch do not appear to have returned to Perak until about the middle of the eighteenth century. In 1757 they had a settlement with a small garrison at Pangkalan Halban on the Perak river. Abandoned in 1783, this post was reoccupied a few years later, and the Dutch still held it at the time of the British capture of Malacca in 1795. In that year they were driven out by the English, and though after the restoration of Malacca they attempted in 1819 to re-establish themselves in the Dindings, the endeavour was unsuccessful, as the trade of Perak had already been diverted to Penang. Perak had at this time entered into a treaty of friendship and commerce with the East India Company's representative at Penang, and in 1826 its independence of Siam, whose forces had a few years before overrun the State, was recognized by the Treaty of Bangkok between the latter country and Great Britain.

Relations with Great Britain.

From that date until 1874 the State retained complete independence. In that year the disturbances which resulted from a disputed succession and in which rival factions of Chinese miners played a prominent part, led to the conclusion of the Treaty of Pangkor, to which allusion has already been made, and to the appointment of a British Resident. In November of the following year the Resident, Mr. J. W. Birch, was murdered and, the force sent to seize the murderers having met with resistance, it became necessary to obtain troops from India and China, and to undertake a punitive

The Pangkor Treaty and the appointment of a Resident.

expedition. The objects of the expedition were soon effected. The actual murderers were apprehended and hanged, and the Sultan Abdullah and other chiefs who were implicated in the affair were banished to the Seychelles. Mr. Hugh Low[1], who had had long experience of Malays in Borneo was appointed Resident, and under his able guidance and that of his successor, Mr. F. A. Swettenham[2], the prosperity of the State rapidly increased. The revenue which had in 1875 amounted to a little over $226,000 rose by 1895 to more than 4 millions. In 1904 it was $11,332,272. The value of imports rose from about $830,000 in 1876 to nearly 21 millions in 1904, and that of exports from about $740,000 to over 28 millions. CHAPTER III. *Financial Development.*

The area of Perak is approximately 65,000 square miles, nearly nine-tenths of the size of Wales; its coast line is about 90 miles in extent: its greatest length from North to South 172 miles, and its greatest breadth about 100. *Area and Geography.*

The central feature of the State is the valley of the Perak river, which for the greater part of its course runs roughly from North to South between two ranges of mountains. Outside the valleys of this river and its tributaries, however, are the important district of Larut, and the districts at the extreme North and the extreme South, watered respectively by the Krian and Bernam rivers.

Of the two ranges of mountains the higher is that on the Eastern side of the Perak river, some points in it rising to over 7,000 feet. This range is part of the mountains which form the backbone of the Malay Peninsula, and separate the States of the Western from those of the Eastern coast. *Mountains.*

The length of the Perak river is said to be about 250 miles. It rises in the borderland between Perak and the Siamese *Rivers.*

[1] The late Sir Hugh Low, G.C.M.G.

[2] Now Sir F. A. Swettenham K.C.M.G., who in 1896 became the first Resident General of the Federation and was subsequently Governor of the Straits Settlements and High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States.

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States: it flows mainly, as has been said, from North to South, but towards the latter end of its course it turns sharply to the West and flows direct into the Straits of Malacca. For purposes of ship navigation it is of no great use: its estuary, like that of most other Malay rivers, is shallow, and the upper part of its channel is impeded by rocks and rapids. It is navigable for about 40 miles from the sea for vessels of from 300 to 400 tons burden, and for smaller boats for a much longer distance. Of its tributaries the most important are the Plus, which flows into it some distance above Kuala Kangsar; the Kinta, which joins the main river near where the latter turns to the West, and which drains a valley parallel to that of the Perak; and the Batang Padang, which joins it slightly lower down at Durian Sabatang. The other rivers of the State include the Larut, the Krian, and the Bernam. The Krian, for a part of its course, forms the boundary with Kedah, while the Bernam is the dividing line between Perak and Selangor. The latter river, of which the estuary is two miles wide, is said to have a greater volume of water than any other river in the Peninsula, and is navigable for steamers for about 100 miles.

Districts.

For administrative purposes Perak is divided into nine districts, three on the coast and six inland. The coast districts are Krian, South of Province Wellesley; Matang, between Krian and the Dindings; and Lower Perak, between the Dindings and Selangor. The mineral resources of these districts are of little importance and their main wealth is agricultural, large areas being devoted to plantations of rice, coco-nuts, and rubber. The chief rice-fields are in the Krian district, where an extensive scheme of irrigation has been undertaken by the Government. The principal ports of the State are Port Weld in Matang, and Teluk Anson in Lower Perak.

Of the inland districts, Selama lies to the North-East of Krian, with Upper Perak beyond it to the East. South of

Selama and East of Matang is Larut[1], once the chief mining district in the Peninsula though now only of secondary importance. It contains the administrative capital, Taiping, which is connected by railway with Port Weld. The district of Kuala Kangsar occupies the central part of the State, and its capital of the same name is the residence of the Sultan. The North-Eastern portion of this district extends to the Pahang border, between Upper Perak and Kinta. The latter district, which comprises the valley of the Kinta river, is the most important tin-producing area of the State. It contained in 1901 more than one-third of the total population of Perak, and includes Ipoh, the chief commercial centre of the State, as well as other towns of importance. CHAPTER III.

To the South of Kinta is the district of Batang Padang, bordered on the West by Lower Perak, on the South by Selangor, and on the East by Pahang. It is rapidly rising in importance as a mining centre. The two districts of Kinta and Batang Padang are the source of most of the tin exported from the State, of which the value in 1904 was nearly $25,000,000, while gold worth over $61,000 was exported from Batang Padang in that year.

SELANGOR

Selangor lies to the South of Perak, across the Bernam river. On the West and South-West it is bounded by the Straits of Malacca, and on the East and South-East by Pahang and the Negri Sembilan. *Situation.*

Its early history, like that of Perak, is obscure, and the State as now constituted is new, owing its origin to a settlement made about 1718 by Bugis from the Celebes, who at that time were making constant raids on the coasts of the Peninsula. The principal chief of this settlement was *History.*

[1] Larut, Krian, Selama, and Matang are under the control of a Chief District Officer, residing at Taiping, Assistant District Officers being stationed in the other districts.

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invested with the title of Sultan by the Sultan of Perak in 1743. In 1783 Selangor joined the people of Rhio in an unsuccessful attack on the Dutch at Malacca, and in the following year the Sultan was driven from his state by a Dutch punitive expedition. This expedition established a fort in the country, but in 1785 the Sultan, with assistance from Pahang, succeeded in expelling the garrison. In the next year, however, he was compelled, in consequence of a blockade of the coast, to acknowledge the supremacy of the Dutch, and to promise to them the monopoly of the in-trade of his dominions. The connection with the Dutch naturally came to an end with the British capture of Malacca, and when that possession was restored to the Dutch, the Sultan, who had meanwhile entered into a treaty of friendship and commerce with the representatives of the British East India Company, declined to renew the former relations. The Bangkok treaty of 1826 recognized the independence of Selangor, as it did that of Perak, and for nearly half a century the State was left to itself.

The Dutch.

The British.

The Bugis have always been famous for their piratical exploits, and, owing to their influence in Selangor, the State enjoyed for many years the reputation of being the home of the most formidable pirates in the whole of the Malay Peninsula. Finally, in 1874, after Selangor had for some years been a prey to intestine strife, in which, as in Perak, the Chinese miners took a leading part, a more than usually flagrant case of piracy at the mouth of the Langat river led to the intervention of the Government of the Straits Settlements, and the Sultan was induced to accept a British Resident.

Appointment of a Resident.

As a result of this step, the country has since enjoyed unbroken peace and prosperity. Its revenues have risen from $115,656 in 1875 to $8,241,766 in 1904, and for its size, which is less than half that of Perak, it is the richest of the States of the Federation.

CHAPTER III.

Area and Geography.

The area of Selangor is some 3,200 square miles. It consists for the most part of a plain lying between the sea and the central mountain range, which divides it from Pahang. Its greatest breadth is about 48 miles and its greatest length about 100, while its coast-line extends for about 126 miles along the Straits.

Rivers.

The State is poorly watered compared with the other States of the Federation, containing, in addition to the Bernam on the frontier, only three rivers of any importance, the Klang, the Selangor, and the Langat. The navigation of the two latter is impeded by bars at their mouths.

Products.

Rubber, coffee, and coco-nuts are largely cultivated, but the agricultural resources of the State are of small value compared with its extensive alluvial deposits of tin. As a consequence, the Malay inhabitants are, as already noted, greatly inferior in number to the Chinese, who in 1901 formed nearly 74 per cent. of the population.

Districts.

The State is divided into six districts, Kuala Lumpur, Klang, Ulu Selangor, Kuala Selangor, Ulu Langat, and Kuala Langat[1]. Kuala Lumpur, the central district, contains the town of that name, which is the commercial centre of Selangor and is also the capital, both of the State and of the Federation. It is connected with the coast by a railway to Port Swettenham. The district contains many of the most important tin mines in Selangor. To the West, between Kuala Lumpur and the sea, is the district of Klang. Practically no mining is carried on in this district, which is largely occupied by coffee and rubber estates. Its main importance is derived from the fact that it contains, in Port

[1] 'Kuala,' as a geographical expression, means (*a*) the mouth or estuary of a river, (*b*) the point of junction of a tributary stream and a river—e. g. the town of Kuala Kangsar (p. 225 above) is built where the little stream Kangsar joins the Perak river, a long way from the mouth of the latter. 'Ulu,' the ancient Indonesian word for a 'head', now superseded in ordinary use by the Sanskrit 'kepala', means the upper watershed of a river. Cp. Wilkinson's *Malay Dictionary*.

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Swettenham at the mouth of the Klang river, the principal port of the Federation. The town of Klang is the residence of the Sultan of Selangor. Ulu Selangor occupies the interior between Kuala Lumpur and the Northern boundary. It is the principal centre of the mining industry and contains several important towns, of which the chief is Kuala Kubu on the Selangor river. Between Ulu Selangor and the sea is the district of Kuala Selangor, which is still only partially developed and contains considerable areas of dense jungle and swampy land. Its main industries are agriculture and fishing, as are those of Kuala Langat, which lies along the coast to the South of Klang. To the North-East of Kuala Langat and to the South-East of Kuala Lumpur lies the mining district of Ulu Langat, which marches with Pahang and the Negri Sembilan.

THE NEGRI SEMBILAN

Situation.

The territory occupied by the group of small States which are known by the collective name of the Negri Sembilan is bounded on the North and North-West by Selangor, on the South by the Settlement of Malacca, on the North-East and East by Pahang and Johore, and on the South-West by the Straits of Malacca.

History.

The present federation dates only from 1895, but the name, which means 'the nine States,' is of considerable antiquity, having been applied to several previous groups of States. According to Malay tradition, the land was first peopled by Sakai from the hills, who formed a number of small States, and, in view of the contempt with which the aborigines are regarded by the Malays, it is not probable that this tradition would have grown up without some foundation, though the majority of the present inhabitants are certainly not of Sakai descent. About the end of the eighteenth century a Rajah of the royal line of Menangkabau

in Sumatra was invited to rule over this group of States, and assumed the title of Yang-di-per-Tuan of Sri Menanti. The original federation appears to have included Klang, now part of Selangor; Naning, in the district of Malacca; and one or two other small States, which now form part of Johore; but the accounts are confused, and it is scarcely worth while to attempt to unravel the intricate story of the relations of the States in the time before the introduction of British influence. Sungei Ujong, then separated from the Negri Sembilan, was the first of these States to accept a Resident, the appointment being made with a view to ending internal dissensions which had interfered with British trade. In 1875 disturbances, similar to those which took place at the same time in Perak, occurred in the Negri Sembilan, but they were easily suppressed and since that date the peace of the country has remained unbroken. In the succeeding years British influence was gradually extended, and by 1886 all the States which now form the confederation were being administered under the advice of British officers. In 1895 Sri Menanti, Johol, Rembau, and Tampin, which, with other minor districts under the control of one or other of these States, had since 1887 formed the Negri Sembilan, joined with Sungei Ujong and Jelebu in a confederation under the old name, one Resident being appointed for the whole group. The Yang-di-per-Tuan of Sri Menanti is regarded as the head of the federation, but the ruler of each of the component States is independent of the rest. There is one State Council for the whole of the Negri Sembilan, which is presided over by the Yang-di-per-Tuan, and in which the rulers of Sungei Ujong, Jelebu, Johol, Rembau, and Tampin have seats.

Appointment of a Resident in Sungei Ujong.

Growth of British influence.

The present federation.

The area of the Negri Sembilan is about 2,600 square miles: its greatest length from North to South is about 55 miles and its greatest breadth about 65: the coast-line extends for about 30 miles. The country consists of un-

Area and Geography.

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dulating plains, broken by several mountain ranges, of which the most important runs South and South-East from the Jelebu district to the Malacca border, the highest peak (Gunong Resan), rising to nearly 4,000 feet.

Rivers.

The State is well watered, its main rivers being the Linggi, which in the latter part of its course forms the boundary with Malacca, the Muar, which rises in the East of the State and runs at first in a South-Easterly direction, eventually finding its way to the sea through Johore territory to the South of Malacca. In the North, the principal stream is the Triang, which flows into Pahang, and joins the Pahang river.

Mineral and agricultural resources.

As in Perak and Selangor the main wealth of the country is derived from the mines, the value of the tin produced in 1904 amounting to nearly $6,500,000, but its agricultural resources are also of considerable importance, large areas being planted with coco-nuts, tapioca, rubber, pepper, gambier, coffee, and rice; and the Malays of the Negri Sembilan are said to devote more systematic attention to cultivation than is the case in any other part of the Federation.

Districts.

For administrative purposes the State is divided into five districts, the Coast, Seremban, Jelebu, Kuala Pilah, and Tampin. The Coast district lies along the Straits of Malacca and includes the whole sea-board of the State. About the centre of the coast line is Port Dickson, practically the only port in the State. The most important industry of the district is agriculture. To the North lies Seremban, which with the Coast district comprises the State of Sungei Ujong. The chief town, from which the district takes its name, is the capital of the Negri Sembilan and is connected with Port Dickson by the Sungei Ujong Railway. The tin-producing areas of the State are situated chiefly in this district and in that of Jelebu, which lies to the North-East. South-East of Jelebu is Kuala Pilah, which has long been an important agricultural district and is now increasing in importance as

a mining area. Gold is found here as well as in other parts of the East of the State, but the deposits have so far proved of no great value, only one mine having been successfully worked in 1904. At Sri Menanti, a few miles from the town of Kuala Pilah, which forms the capital of the district, is the residence of the Yang-di-per-Tuan. Between Kuala Pilah and the Malacca border is Tampin, from which the chief exports are tapioca, coffee, and jungle produce. CHAPTER III.

PAHANG

Situation. Pahang, the largest and at the same time the poorest and the least populous of the Federated Malay States, lies on the Eastern side of the central chain of mountains. On the West and South-West it is bordered by the sister States of the Federation and on the East by the China Sea. On the North it marches with the Siamese dependencies of Kelantan and Trengganu and on the South with Johore, from which it is divided by the Endau river.

History. The early history of the State, which in ancient times was called Indrapura, is as obscure as that of the other States of the Federation. The ruling family claims descent from a Rajah of the royal house of Malacca, who is alleged to have fled to Pahang after the capture of Malacca by the Portuguese. Pahang is said to have been at one time subject to Siam but within historical times it was a dependency of the empire of Johore, ruled by one of the great nobles, the hereditary Bendahara. On the break-up of the Johore empire at the end of the sixteenth century[1], the Bendahara became practically an independent ruler, though the title of Sultan was not assumed until 1882.[2]

Relations with Great Britain. The first treaty with Great Britain dates only from 1887, but the rulers of Pahang had for many years previously been

[1] See above, p. 194 n.

[2] By the present Sultan, who obtained possession of the throne in 1862 after several years of civil war.

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in the habit of asking for the assistance and advice of the Government of the Straits Settlements, as, for instance, in the settlement of the boundary with Johore, which was referred to the arbitration of Governor Sir Harry Ord in 1868. In 1887 the Sultan entered into a treaty which placed the foreign relations of the State under the control of Great Britain and consented to receive at his Court a British Agent "having functions similar to those of a Consular officer." In the following year the murder of a Chinese British subject led to the intervention of the Government of the Straits Settlements, which resulted in the appointment of a Resident.

Appointment of a Resident.

Internal disturbances.

The State had long been notorious for misgovernment and for the oppression practised by the principal chiefs, and some of the latter resented the interference of the new administration with their authority. The discontent came to a head at the end of 1891, when a rising took place under the leadership of a chief named Bahman, the Orang Kaya of Semantan. A tedious guerilla warfare ensued, which was protracted by the difficulty of operations in the jungles of the State, but late in 1892 the Sikh troops[1] and police, who had been introduced from Perak, Selangor, and the Straits Settlements, succeeded in compelling the rebel leaders to seek refuge over the borders of Kelantan and Trengganu. In 1894, the Orang Kaya, having collected a force consisting largely of Kelantan Malays, suddenly re-crossed the frontier, raided a police station on the Tembeling river and established himself in a stockade. Sikh troops and police were again brought in and the Orang Kaya was defeated and driven back into Kelantan, whence, as a result of negotiations with the Siamese Government, he and his principal followers were banished to Chiengmai in the North of Siam. Since then, the State has settled down peaceably under the new regime.

[1] The main part of the force consisted of a detachment of the Perak Sikhs, a force which was, on the federation of the States, merged in the Malay States Guides.

CHAPTER III.

The area of the State, which includes a number of small islands off the coast, is estimated at 14,000 square miles; i. e. it is rather more than twice the size of Perak. Its coast line is some 130 miles in length, and its greatest length and breadth respectively about 200 and 130 miles. *Area, &c.*

Mountain ranges separate Pahang from Perak and Selangor in the West and from Trengganu on the North, while another chain cuts off the Kuantan district on the coast from the central district of Tembeling: there are also a number of isolated peaks, of which the most important is Gunong Tahan[1] close to the Kelantan border. Gunong Tahan itself is slightly under 8,000 feet high; a spur, known as Gunong Siam, lying to the North on the border line, is slightly higher, and is probably the loftiest point in the Peninsula. *Mountains.*

Of the numerous rivers the most important is the Pahang, which debouches into the China Sea near the middle of the coast line. It is free from the rapids which impede the navigation of many of the rivers of the Western States, but its shallowness renders it navigable only for vessels of small draught. Next to the Pahang, the chief rivers are the Kuantan, which enters the sea in the Northern part of the coast, the Endau which forms the boundary with Johore, and the Rompin, a few miles North of the Endau. The latter stream is navigable for nearly 100 miles from its mouth. *Rivers.*

A considerable part of the interior of Pahang is still unexplored, and consists of thick jungle, unpopulated, or inhabited only by wandering tribes of Sakai. *Interior*

In material prosperity Pahang has lagged far behind the States of the West coast. The revenue, which in 1904 amounted to $458,226, is steadily increasing, but has never equalled the expenditure, the deficits being supplied by advances from the other States of the Federation. The backwardness of the State is doubtless to some extent due to the misgovernment which formerly existed, to the fact that *Backwardness of Pahang.*

[1] 'Gunong' = a lofty mountain, as opposed to 'Bukit,' a hill.

SECTION V.

a reformed administration was not introduced until fourteen years later than in the other States, and to the disturbances to which allusion has already been made, but to a far greater extent it is the result of natural causes. The coast line contains no good harbour and the river mouths are practically closed to shipping during the North-East monsoon, so that communications with the outside world are hindered during a considerable part of the year. A further drawback is that, though the State undoubtedly possesses great mineral resources, the tin is found chiefly in lodes, the alluvial deposits being of little importance compared with those of the Western States. Pahang has, therefore, been neglected by the Chinese miners, who as a rule are unable to find the capital required for working the lodes, and its mines have been left undeveloped in consequence. There can, however, be little doubt that, as the alluvial deposits of the West become exhausted, more attention will be devoted to Pahang. In 1904 the output of tin was valued at about two million dollars, most of it coming from the alluvial workings in the West of the State. In gold, Pahang is richer than any other State of the Federation, the value of the metal exported in 1904 being nearly $700,000. Next to tin and gold the most important articles of export are timber and forest products, including several varieties of gutta[1].

Mineral resources.

Fisheries.

The fisheries of the East coast, which are of considerable importance, are largely worked by Malays from the Northern States, who come in for the fishing season, the natives of Pahang being even less inclined to work than their fellow-countrymen in the West.

Population.

Pahang is by far the most sparsely populated of the Federated States, containing only about six inhabitants to the square mile; it has already been pointed out that it is the

[1] Owing to the destruction of immature trees by the natives it has been found necessary to prohibit for the present the collection of the most valuable kind of gutta—getah taban (*Dichopsis gutteri*).

only State of the Federation in which the Malay population is greatly in excess of the Chinese. CHAPTER III.

The administrative districts of Pahang are five in number, Kuantan, Pekan, Temerloh, Lipis, and Raub. The Kuantan district includes the Northern part of the coast, and contains the principal tin lodes worked in the State. The Pekan district covers the rest of the coast. Its chief town, also called Pekan, was the former capital of the State, and is still the residence of the Sultan. The Temerloh district lies in the centre of the State, and consists mainly of agricultural land. The Lipis district in the North-east contains Kuala Lipis, the State capital, which is connected by a road of about 80 miles in length with Kuala Kubu in Ulu Selangor.[1] This district, which is the most thickly populated in Pahang, contains a number of gold and tin mines. At Selensing, close to the Perak border, are the ancient gold workings, to which reference has already been made.[2] To the South of Lipis is the district of Raub, in which is obtained most of the alluvial tin exported from the State. The Raub gold mine is the richest in Pahang. The sub-district of Bentong is one of the chief alluvial tin fields in the State. It is connected by cart-road with Raub, and is being similarly connected with Kuala Pilah in the Negri Sembilan and Kuala Lumpur in Selangor. *Districts.*

Forty years ago the mention of the Native States of the Malay Peninsula would probably have suggested to the average Englishman the idea of a half-savage country, inhabited by a race which varied the national pursuit of piracy by the practice of running a-muck on little or no *General.*

[1] A motor car service for mails, goods and passengers, which is subsidized by the Government, runs on this road from the railway terminus at Kuala Kubu to Raub and Kuala Lipis, with an extension to Bentong.

[2] See above p. 183 n.

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provocation. The well-informed knew that the country produced a quantity of tin, worked by Chinese miners, whose rival factions were responsible for frequent bloodshed. The fact that in little more than a generation piracy and civil war have been ended, and the chaos of the Native States reduced to an orderly Federation, producing three-fourths of the world's tin and counting its revenues by millions of dollars and its railways by hundreds of miles, bears eloquent testimony to the success which has attended British methods of dealing with an Asiatic race and to the ability with which the empire has been served by its representatives in the East.

It should be noted also that the change has been effected not by armed intervention, but by the arts of peace. The British entered the States not as conquerors, but as advisers; no blood has been shed except in the trifling disorders, which were almost unavoidable on the introduction of a system of administration differing so widely from that previously in force; no attempt has been made at annexation, and though the administration of the States is controlled by Great Britain, they are still ruled by their own Sultans and Rajahs.

JOHORE

Situation.

Johore, the only State in the British sphere which remains outside the Federation, occupies the Southern part of the Malay Peninsula.

On the North-East it marches with Pahang; on the North-West with the Negri Sembilan and Malacca; on the other sides it is bounded by the sea.

History.

Tradition asserts that the Sultanate was founded by the Sultan of Malacca after his expulsion by the Portuguese, and the forces of the State played a prominent part in the numerous attempts made to drive the Portugese from the Peninsula. With the Dutch the State appears to have consistently maintained friendly relations. A Dutch factory

Relations with the Dutch.

was established on the Johore river early in the seventeenth century and the troops of Johore assisted the Dutch in their assault on Malacca in 1606. As has already been seen[1], the seat of the empire of Johore, which had been extended widely over the neighbouring States, was transferred at the end of the eighteenth century to the Rhio Archipelago, and the principal chiefs became practically independent rulers. The hereditary Temenggong became *de facto* ruler of Johore, though the Sultan still retained a nominal authority, and both the Sultan and the Temenggong were parties to the treaty by which Singapore was ceded to Great Britain. This state of affairs continued for the first half of the nineteenth century, during most of which time both the Sultan and the Temenggong resided at Singapore; but in 1855 the Sultan resigned his claims on Johore in favour of the Temenggong, retaining for himself only the territory of Muar in the North-West of the State. This district was finally re-united to Johore in 1877, and two years later the Temenggong was recognized as Maharajah of Johore. In 1885 the treaty by which the foreign relations of the State were placed under the control of Great Britain authorized the Maharajah to assume the title of 'Sultan of the State and Territory of Johore'.

With Great Britain.

The late Sultan, Abubakar, was a man of enlightened views, and his methods of government were in striking contrast to those of the majority of Malay rulers and, partly on that account and partly owing to the proximity of the State to Singapore, Great Britain has never found it necessary to introduce the Residential system into Johore. The Treaty of 1885, provided for the appointment, if desired, of a British Agent with functions similar to those of a consular officer, but no such appointment has, as yet, been made.

The area of Johore is reckoned at about 9,000 square miles: the State is therefore nearly as large as Perak and

Area and Geography.

[1] See above p. 194 n.

SECTION V.

Selangor together. The coast line is about 250 miles in extent, the greatest length of the State about 165 miles, and its greatest breadth about 100.

Mountains.

The country is less mountainous than the other States of the Peninsula. The principal range is the Blumut, which lies rather to the East of the centre of the State, and in which the Johore river rises. There are other isolated groups on the Pahang border to the North, and on the West near the frontier of Malacca. The principal peak is Mount Ophir (Gunong Ledang), which is some 4,000 feet in height.

Rivers.

Of the rivers the most important is the Muar, which takes its rise in the Negri Sembilan and flows into the sea a few miles South of Malacca. It was formerly the boundary between Muar and Johore. The only other rivers of any size are the Endau, which divides Johore from Pahang, and the Johore which flows into the sea a little to the East of Singapore.

Government.

The Government of the State is based on a constitution framed by the late Sultan[1]. The Sultan is assisted by a State Council, which is also a court of appeal, and the departments of government are organized on the lines of those in the neighbouring colony and the Federated Malay States, and comprise a Secretariat, a Treasury, Police, Medical, Agricultural, Education, Public Works, and other Departments. The district of Muar is governed by a member of the royal house with the title of State Commissioner, and has a Treasury and other departments of its own.

Finances.

No trustworthy information is obtainable as to the finances of the State, but in 1902 the revenue was estimated at about $750,000[2]. It is derived mainly from opium, spirit, and

[1] The late Sultan carried his admiration of Western institutions so far as to establish two orders of chivalry—the 'Most Esteemed Family Order' and the 'Order of the Crown of Johore'.

[2] See the article on Johore in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, written by Mr. Hugh Clifford, formerly Resident of Pahang.

gambling farms and from export duties on gambier and pepper. CHAPTER III.

Resources. The interior of Johore is practically unknown, being in great part covered with virgin forest, and the resources of the State have never been developed, but with the completion of the railway now under construction it can hardly be doubted that its prosperity will be greatly enhanced.

Minerals. At present the chief products are pepper and gambier, areca-nuts, coffee, sago, tapioca, and jungle produce. Tin is worked to some extent, especially in Muar, and there is a gold mine near Mount Ophir, but it is said that the only mineral in which the country is really rich is iron, which has, however, never been worked.

Population. The population is estimated at some two hundred thousand, about three-fourths of the whole being Chinese, who are chiefly engaged in the cultivation of gambier and pepper.

Towns. The capital of the state is Johore Bahru[1] on the straits opposite the island of Singapore. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, mainly Chinese. The only other town of importance is Bandar Maharani, the capital of the Muar district, which lies close to the mouth of the Muar river. From this town a light railway runs to Barit Jawa, about eight miles further down the coast.

Books and Publications.

In addition to the works mentioned at the end of the two preceding chapters, reference should be made to the *Handbook of the Federated Malay States*, by H. C. Belfield, Resident of Selangor.

[1] 'New Johore': so called to distinguish it from Johore Lama (Old Johore), the former capital, which lies on the Johore river.

Section V

CHAPTER IV

BORNEO

Section V. *Situation.*

To the East of the Malay Peninsula, North of Java and about half-way between China and Australia, lies the island of Borneo. This island, the largest in the world after Australia and New Guinea, contains an area of about 290,000 square miles [1], of which about one-third is under the protection of Great Britain.

History.

Of the early history of Borneo little is recorded. The island is supposed to have been visited about 1322 by Friar Odoric of Pordenone [2], but it was not until the early years of the sixteenth century that it became generally known to Europeans. The first account of it is given by the Italian Pigafetta, who accompanied the Spanish expedition which circumnavigated the world under the command of the famous Portuguese Fernando de Magalhaes, commonly called Magellan. After Magellan's death in the Philippines, the ships of the expedition visited Borneo and stayed for a time at the town of Brunei, of which Pigafetta gives a description which shows that it was then the centre of a wealthy kingdom, carrying on a considerable trade with China. The importance of Brunei was such that it was thought that the Sultan's authority extended over the whole of the island, to which the early navigators accordingly gave the name of Borneo (a corrup-

The Spanish and Portuguese.

[1] i.e. it is nearly half as large again as France.

[2] The friar gives an account of an island, which he calls Panten or Thalamasyn, which appears to suit Borneo better than any other country in these seas.

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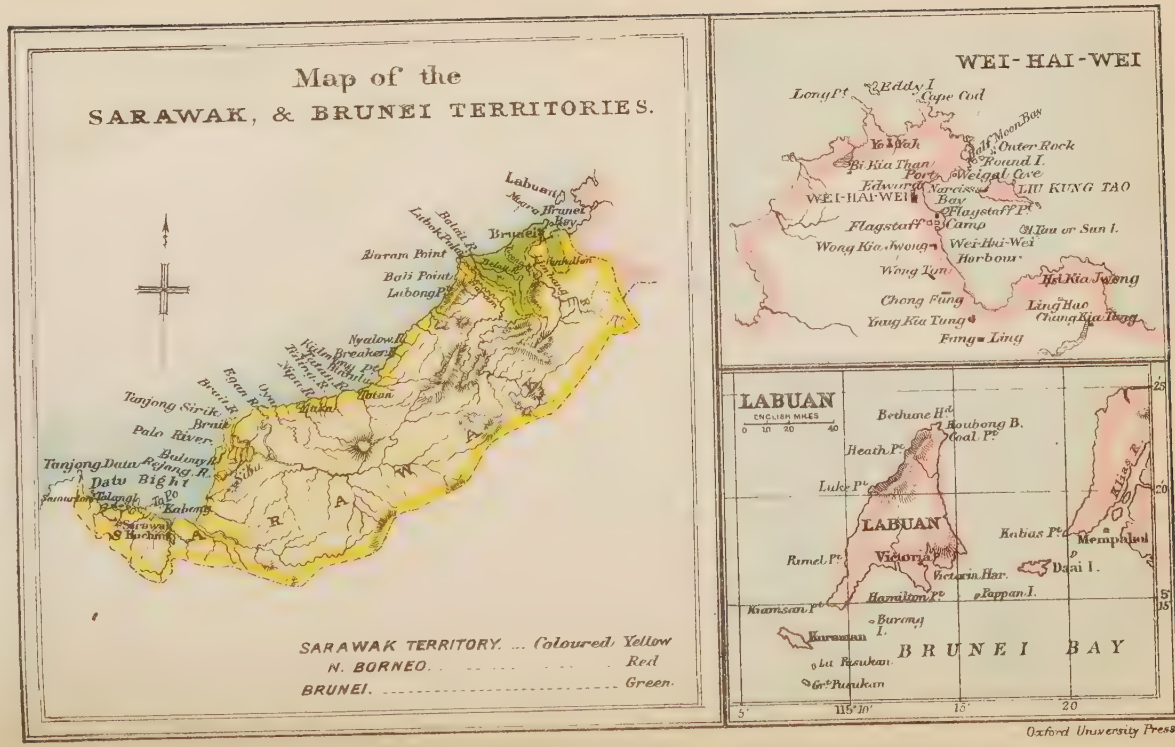

Oxford University Press

tion of Brunei), but as a fact it does not appear that Borneo was ever united under one rule and there is no native name for the island as a whole.[1] CHAPTER IV.

As was to be expected, the Spaniards from the Philippines and the Portuguese from the Moluccas carried on a trade with Borneo during the sixteenth century, but little or no detailed information on the subject is available. Neither nation seems to have made any vigorous effort to establish control over the island, though in 1576 a Spanish expedition from Manila captured Brunei, dethroned a usurping Sultan, and replaced the legitimate ruler on the throne—a service which he is said to have rewarded by declaring himself a vassal of Spain.[2] Another Spanish attack on the town is recorded as late as 1645, but before that time the Dutch and English had taken the place of the Spanish and Portuguese as the principal European races having relations with Borneo.

The Dutch and English.

The first Dutchman who visited the island was Oliver van Noort, who touched at Brunei in December, 1600, but stayed only a few days as the natives endeavoured to seize his ship. Four years later Van Warwyk commenced a trade with Sukadana on the West coast, from which, according to contemporary accounts, 'great store of diamonds' was obtained, and in the next few years Dutch factories were established in that town and in Landak and Sambas in the same neighbourhood. The London East India Company also established a factory in Sukadana in or about 1609, and another at Sambas a few years later. These early factories, both Dutch and English, appear to have met with little success, and

[1] It is stated in many books that the native name of the island is Pulau Kalamantan, but Sir W. H. Treacher, in an article on British Borneo in the *Journal of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society* (1889), says that that name is quite unknown, at least in North Borneo.

[2] The accounts of these incidents are very contradictory. The statement in the text is taken from the article by Sir W. H. Treacher, referred to above. Another account states that the Spaniards attacked Brunei twice, and took it on the second occasion (1580), but were finally compelled by the natives to evacuate it.

SECTION V.

disturbances among the natives led to their being abandoned in 1623.

At the end of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth century, endeavours were made both by the London East India Company and by the English East India Company, and later by the united Companies, to establish a settlement at Banjarmasin on the South coast for the purposes of the pepper trade, but again the hostility of the natives led to the abandonment of the factories. The trade with Banjarmasin was reopened in 1738, but was finally abandoned in 1747 owing to the hostility of the Dutch, who compelled the Sultan to grant them a monopoly of the trade. This ended the connection of the British with the Southern part of Borneo, except for a short time during the Napoleonic wars, when the British Government of Java sent Alexander Hare[1] to Banjarmasin as Resident or Commissioner (1811), and also established a small post at Pontianak, on the West coast. On the restoration of the Dutch possessions in the East in 1818, the British finally withdrew and left the Southern part of the island to the Dutch, who had re-established their settlements on the West coast in the course of the eighteenth century, but had again abandoned them in 1809, and who now by slow degrees extended their sovereignty over about two-thirds of the island.

When an end was put to their trade with Banjarmasin, the English Company turned their attention to the North, and in 1762 the Sultan of Sulu, in return for his release by a British fleet from captivity in the Philippines, ceded to them the island of Balambangan, which lies off the East end of the North coast of Borneo. A settlement was established there in 1763, and later in the same year the Sulu Sultan granted to the Company a further concession, comprising the territories under his sovereignty in the North-East of the mainland

[1] See above, p. 208, under Cocos-Keeling Islands.

of Borneo and in the neighbouring islands[1]—a grant against which protests were entered by the Spanish Government of the Philippines, who claimed sovereignty over all the Sultan's territories. No advantage was, however, taken of this latter concession and the settlement on Balambangan was not long-lived. In 1774 the Company had entered into a treaty with the Sultan of Brunei, by which, in return for a promise of protection against the pirates of Sulu and Mindanao, they received the monopoly of the pepper trade in his dominions, but the inefficiency of such protection was demonstrated in the following year when the settlers on Balambangan were expelled and the factory sacked by Sulu pirates. The Company's servants migrated to Labuan, and a small factory was also established in the town of Brunei, but, the trade proving unremunerative, these posts were soon abandoned and a settlement in Marudu Bay in the extreme North of Borneo met with equal ill-success. Another attempt to settle on Balambangan was made in 1803, but fell through in the following year, and for nearly forty years there was no British interference in the affairs of the North of Borneo. In this period the prosperity of North Borneo seems to have rapidly declined, owing to the cessation of the trade with China, which had first decreased in consequence of European competition and was now entirely destroyed by the tyrannical and rapacious government of the Sultan of Brunei and by the growth of piracy on the coast; and the Northern parts of the island had sunk into a state little removed from barbarism by the time of the revival of the British connection with the country.

Rajah Brooke.

That revival was due to private enterprise and mainly to the energy and enthusiasm of one man—James Brooke. Mr. Brooke[2], the younger son of an Indian Civil Servant,

[1] Part of the North-East of Borneo, with the neighbouring islands, including Balambangan, had been ceded by Brunei to the Sultan of Sulu in 1704 in return for assistance rendered in a civil war.

[2] He was made a K.C.B. in 1848.

SECTION V.

had served in the Indian army, but had been obliged to retire from the service in consequence of wounds received in the Burmese campaign of 1825. During a voyage to China in 1830 he had been struck by the beauty and fertility of the islands of the Malay seas and had conceived the idea of rescuing Borneo from its state of barbarism by the establishment of British settlements on the mainland and the gradual extension of British influence among the native rulers. An opportunity of taking some effective steps in this direction resulted from his visits in 1839 and 1840 to the State of Sarawak, which lies near the Western extremity of the North coast of Borneo, at the limit of the dominions then owned by the Sultan of Brunei. On both occasions he found the Rajah Muda Hassim, the uncle and heir-apparent of the Sultan, occupied in endeavours to put down an insurrection caused by the oppressive rule of the chief to whom the government of the district was entrusted.[1] On the second occasion the assistance given by Mr. Brooke and the crew of his yacht resulted in the suppression of the rebellion, and, as a mark of gratitude, the Rajah Muda offered to confer upon him the government of Sarawak, of which he had a right to dispose. Mr. Brooke decided to accept the offer with a view to giving the natives the benefit of a just government in place of the systematic oppression to which they were accustomed, and in September, 1841, he was proclaimed Governor of Sarawak, though not before he had found it necessary to exercise some pressure to induce the Rajah Muda to keep his word. The grant of the territory was formally approved by the Sultan of Brunei in the following year.

The subsequent years were marked by several expeditions against the pirate tribes of the coast, in which the native forces of Mr. or, to give him his usual title, Rajah Brooke's territory co-operated with the crews of British men-of-war,

[1] The government of Brunei at this time appears to have been practically administered by the Rajah Muda.

under the command of Captain Harry Keppel[1], and several of the chief pirate settlements were destroyed. These operations were not to the taste of many of the leading nobles of Brunei, who found it profitable to be on good terms with the pirates, and early in 1846 dissensions between this faction and the party favourable to Great Britain, which was led by Raja Muda Hassim, resulted in the murder of a number of the chiefs of the latter party, including several members of the royal house, the Rajah Muda himself committing suicide to escape falling into the hands of his enemies. A small squadron under Sir Thomas Cochrane, the Admiral in command of the station, which visited Brunei to inquire into these occurrences, was fired on as it entered the river, and in consequence the town was attacked and taken, practically without any resistance being offered, in July. The Sultan fled to the interior and, the expedition sent in pursuit having found it impossible to capture him owing to the nature of the country, negotiations were opened which resulted in his being allowed to return to his capital on undertaking to respect the pledges which he had given to suppress piracy and disorder. He had already offered to cede to Great Britain the island of Labuan in Brunei Bay as a naval base for operations against the pirates and the fulfilment of this promise was exacted in December, 1846. In May of the next year the Sultan signed a formal treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain, undertaking to suppress piracy and slave-trading, and to foster legitimate trade; he further undertook not to cede any of his territories without the consent of Her Majesty's Government. By 1850 piracy had been practically extirpated from the coasts of Borneo, and openings were thus provided for the introduction of European capital.

CHAPTER IV.

Labuan.

It has already been mentioned that the Sultan of Sulu had claims to sovereignty over a considerable part of the North-East of Borneo; the remainder owed allegiance to the Sultan

North Borneo.

[1] The late Sir Harry Keppel, Admiral of the Fleet.

SECTION V.

of Brunei, but in both cases the dependence in many of the coast districts had long been little more than nominal, while the tribes of the interior appear to have been left to govern themselves.

In 1865 an American syndicate obtained certain concessions from the Sultan of Brunei, but failed to make any use of them, and in 1877 their rights were transferred to two China merchants, Mr. (afterwards Sir Alfred) Dent and Baron von Overbeck (formerly Austrian Consul-General at Hong Kong), who acquired in that and the following year all the rights of the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu over the greater part of the territories now known as North Borneo.

The British North Borneo Company.

A British Company was formed to take over these concessions, and in 1881 was granted a Royal Charter under the title of the British North Borneo Company.[1] The Spanish Government renewed the protests made in the eighteenth century and continued to claim rights over the territory ceded by the Sultan of Sulu until 1885, when by a protocol signed by Germany, Spain, and Great Britain, these claims were resigned in return for the recognition of

[1] Special interest attaches to the grant of this charter. The practice of issuing charters to companies formed for the administration of territory had long fallen into disuse, and it was generally supposed that the system was a thing of the past. It was now revived in favour of a company which had acquired a territory, part of which, as has already been seen, had once been included in the dominions of that greatest of trading and governing corporations, the Honourable East India Company. Other chartered companies followed—the Royal Niger Company, the British East Africa Company, and the British South Africa Company—but the possessions of the two former have been taken over by the British Government, while the independence of the last-named has been curtailed by subsequent alterations in its charter, and the British North Borneo Company is at once the oldest of the new group of chartered companies and the only one which has retained its administrative freedom unimpaired. The terms of the charter are also of interest as exemplifying the difference between the British North Borneo Company and its great forerunners. The Crown assumed no sovereignty over the Company's territories and did not purport to grant to the Company any powers of Government, merely recognizing the grants of territory and administrative powers made by the Sultans, and—most significant of all—it prohibited instead of granting a general monopoly of trade.

Spanish sovereignty in the Sulu Islands. Protests were also entered by the Dutch Government, who contended that the occupation was a breach of the clause in the Treaty of 1824, which bound Great Britain not to establish settlements in the islands to the South of the Straits of Singapore.

In 1888 Agreements were signed by which Brunei, North Borneo, and Sarawak were placed under British protection, which was thus extended over the whole of that part of Borneo which was not claimed by the Dutch, and the foreign relations of all these States were handed over to the control of Her Majesty's Government.[1] Since then no change has taken place, except that the States of North Borneo and Sarawak have grown still further at the expense of Brunei, and that the Sultan of Brunei has recently (in December, 1905) agreed to receive a British Resident by whose advice the Government of his territory is to be carried on.

Present state of the Northern part of Borneo.

The British dependencies in Borneo therefore now consist of the Crown colony of Labuan, and the three protectorates of Brunei, North Borneo, and Sarawak. The vagueness of the term 'protectorate' is exemplified by its use to describe the relation of Great Britain to the three latter States. Brunei is—or will be when the new arrangement is in working order—a protectorate on the model of those in the Federated Malay States, where the reigning Sultans are bound to govern according to the advice of the British Residents. In Sarawak Sir Charles Brooke (Sir James Brooke's nephew and successor), is an independent sovereign, His Majesty's Government possessing no right of interference except in the conduct of the foreign relations of the State. North Borneo stands somewhere between these two extremes: not only are the Company's foreign relations controlled by the British

[1] Under the charter of the British North Borneo Company, the Secretary of State was already entitled to object to any part of the Company's dealings with foreign countries, and to insist on his advice being accepted.

SECTION V.

Government, but under the terms of the charter the consent of that Government is required to the appointment of the Governor of their territories, who must be a British subject, as must the Directors of the Company. The Secretary of State is also entitled to object to any of the proceedings of the Company relative to the people of Borneo in respect to 'slavery, or religion, or the administration of justice' or other matters, and to tender advice, based on those objections, which must be accepted.

Inhabitants.

The people of the countries included in the three Borneo protectorates are popularly classed as Malays and Dyaks, but the latter name should properly be confined to one or at most to two tribes, and the inhabitants are really divided into a number of races, of many of which the origin and affinities are very imperfectly known. The people of Brunei are undoubtedly Malays, as are the Bajaus or sea-gipsies formerly famous for their piratical exploits, who are said to have come originally from Johore, while other tribes, such as the Kadayans, are probably also of Malay origin. The Muruts, who are not many degrees removed from savagery and have not yet wholly abandoned the practice of head-hunting, and the rather more civilized Dusuns appear to represent the aboriginal people of Borneo, and other tribes, such as the Illanuns, Balininis, and Sulus, are immigrants from the Celebes, Philippine, or Sulu Islands. The affinities of the Kayans of some parts of Sarawak and the Dyaks proper are unknown or disputed, though a tradition asserts that the latter are descended from the Peguans of Burmah. There has doubtless been much intermixture of races, and in some tribes there appears to be a considerable strain of Chinese blood. The Brunei Malays, the Bajaus and others of the more civilized tribes are Mohammedans, though their religion sits rather lightly upon them; while the more backward races are pagans, with, apparently, no very clear religious notions beyond a general belief in good and bad spirits.

LABUAN

As already stated, Labuan was for a short time the site of a station of the East India Company[1], but for all practical purposes its history starts with the cession to Great Britain in the nineteenth century. The island, then uninhabited, was first voluntarily offered to Her Majesty's Government by the Sultan of Brunei, in 1844, 'on such terms as may hereafter be arranged', but advantage was not taken of the offer at the time, and it was not until the end of 1846 that Captain Mundy, of H.M.S. *Iris*, was instructed to induce the Sultan to sign a formal agreement granting possession to Great Britain. The Sultan's signature to an agreement ceding Labuan and the adjacent islets was obtained on December 18, 1846, though not without some difficulty, since the only consideration offered by Her Majesty's Government in return was an undertaking to suppress piracy and to protect lawful commerce, while the Sultan desired a money payment in addition.[2] Six days later Captain Mundy hoisted the British flag and took possession of the island.

The agreement was confirmed in the following year by the Treaty which defined the relations between Great Britain and Brunei, the reason given for the cession being that it was 'desirable that British ships should have some port where they may careen and refit and deposit such stores and merchandise as shall be necessary for the carrying on of the trade with the dominions of Brunei'.

The island was at first occupied only as a naval station and placed under the charge of a naval officer, no settlement of civilians being effected, and the formal establishment of the

[1] *A Sketch of Borneo* by J. Hunt (1812), reprinted in Keppel's *Expedition to Borneo of H.M.S. Dido*, states that the Portuguese at one time had a fort on the island. No date is given, and no authority quoted.

[2] As some of the Sultan's Ministers made a profit out of dealings with the pirates, they naturally regarded the suppression of piracy as an insufficient equivalent for the cession of territory.

SECTION V.

Crown colony was deferred until 1848. Under Letters Patent issued in December, 1847, Sir James Brooke was appointed Governor and a simple form of Crown colony government established, the Governor being assisted by a nominated Council.

A small garrison of 150 to 200 men, provided first by the Madras army and later by one of the Ceylon Rifle Regiments, was maintained in the island until 1871.

Great expectations were formed of the future prospects of Labuan. It was to be a second Singapore, collecting and forwarding to the West the riches of Borneo and the Sulu archipelago, while the coal mines of the island were to assist in making it an important shipping centre. These hopes were, however, disappointed. The trade did not develop as was expected, and more than one company which tried to work the mines became bankrupt, while, on account of the sickness which broke out among the early settlers, largely owing to an injudicious selection of a site for the new town, the colony acquired a rather undeserved reputation for unhealthiness. The result was that Labuan never attained any real measure of prosperity. Until 1869 it was assisted by grants from the Imperial Exchequer[1] and, though after that date it was self-supporting, there was always a considerable difficulty in making both ends meet. The bankruptcy of a coal company in 1880 deprived the colony of a large part of its revenue, since it involved the loss not only of the rent of the mines but also of much of the revenue from the opium and other farms, owing to the withdrawal of the the company's coolies. The difficulties were increased by the interruption of trade with a large part of the neighbouring coast, caused by disturbances in the Limbang and Trusan districts,[2] and in consequence it was necessary

[1] The total amount of these grants was about £160,000, while the expenditure on the garrison was about £100,000 more.

[2] See below, p. 256.

to reduce the expenditure to the lowest possible limit. For some years the form of a Crown colony government was preserved, the Medical Officer acting as Governor and the Treasurer being practically everything else; but finally, at the end of 1889, the administration was entrusted to the British North Borneo Company, as it was thought that owing to its proximity to the Company's territory it could thus be governed more efficiently and economically than as a separate colony. The island still retained its status as a Crown colony but the Governor of the Company's territory was given a commission as Governor of Labuan and the staff was provided by the Company, who assumed the responsibility for the finances. The Council was at the same time abolished, the legislative power being placed in the hands of the Governor. CHAPTER IV.

This arrangement lasted until the end of 1905, when His Majesty's Government decided to resume the administration of the colony and to carry it on in close connection with that of Brunei, where the Sultan has, as already stated, consented to receive a British Resident. A commission as Governor of Labuan has been issued to the Governor of the Straits Settlements, the actual administration being left in the hands of a deputy, who is also Resident of Brunei.

Area and geography.

Labuan is a triangular island, with an area of a little over thirty square miles; i.e. it is somewhat larger than Guernsey, and is less than one-fourth of the size of the Isle of Wight.

It lies off the mouth of Brunei Bay, about six miles from the nearest point of Borneo and thirty miles from the town of Brunei.

The island contains no rising ground of any considerable height, such hills as there are being mainly towards the North and West, and it has only two streams of any size. At the time of the first occupation, the interior was clothed with virgin forest, but it has now been practically denuded, partly by fires, partly by the wasteful methods of cultivation

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employed by the Borneo natives[1], and partly owing to the amount of wood used by the coal companies in their works. It is now largely covered by deserted native villages and by undrained swamps, in which padi is grown. On the Southern coast—the base of the triangle—is Victoria harbour, nearly two miles long and over a mile wide at its mouth. It is a fine and well-protected harbour, and constitutes the chief feature of the island. The little town of Victoria stands upon its Eastern shore. At the extreme North—the apex of the triangle—is Coalpoint, connected by about ten miles of light railway with Victoria.

Products.

Coalpoint is the scene of the coal mines, which have in recent years been worked with some measure of success, the export in 1903 amounting to over 27,000 tons. The coal has been used in the Royal Navy and is said to be of fairly good quality. A small royalty is levied on the coal exported or sold locally. The only other industry carried on in Labuan is the manufacture of sago. There are three sago factories, in which the raw sago, imported from the coast of Borneo, is prepared for the Singapore market. The rice which is grown is not enough to feed the resident population, and what is required is mainly imported from Singapore. Nor are any other agricultural products raised to any appreciable extent, though there are a few small plantations of sago and coco-nut palms and some fruit gardens. Considerable numbers of cattle and goats are bred in the island.

Finances and Trade.

The highest figure attained by the revenue was over £9,000 in 1876. In 1904 it was about £5,500, and in recent years it has almost invariably been less than the expenditure. Licences, including the opium farm, are the largest item of revenue. The imports in 1904 were valued at a little under £1,800,000 and the exports at about £1,750,000; but these figures relate almost wholly to transit trade, sago,

[1] Compare what is said above, p. 110, as to 'chena' cultivation in Ceylon.

camphor, gutta and other products being collected from the neighbouring coasts and shipped to Singapore, from which port cloth, rice, brass-ware, and other goods are brought to Labuan and sent over to Borneo. CHAPTER IV.

Climate. The climate is far from extreme, the temperature ranging from 71° to 93°, and the general health of the community appears to be good, though malarial fever is prevalent.

Population. The population at the census of 1901 was 8,411, including 51 Europeans and 1,615 Chinese, the remainder of the inhabitants being almost all natives of Borneo.

Distance. Labuan is 300 miles distant from Sandakan, the chief station of the British North Borneo Company, and about 350 from Kuching, the capital of the State of Sarawak. Its distance from Singapore is about 700 miles, from Hong Kong 1,200, and from Manila 800. It has steam communication with Singapore, Manila, and Kuching, and is in telegraphic communication with Hong Kong, Singapore, and North Borneo.

General Summary. Labuan presents at first sight a close parallel to Hong Kong. The two islands comprise much the same area, both lie close to the mainland, both possess fine harbours, and both were acquired at about the same time by Great Britain.

Unfortunately the parallel goes no further. Hong Kong, from which little was generally expected at the time of its occupation, has become one of the greatest ports in the world. Labuan, from which much was hoped, has proved a failure: its past history, its present position, and its future prospects being alike depressing.

Had Borneo been, like China, richly cultivated, teeming with an industrious population, and therefore inviting to European traders, Labuan might now be enjoying as great a measure of prosperity as Hong Kong, both as a commercial port and as a naval station; but the proximity of the decaying Sultanate of Brunei, and of territories inhabited by races whose main occupations until very recent years were piracy

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by sea and head-hunting by land, afforded little temptation to European capitalists to invest money in Labuan, and even the rising prosperity of other parts of Borneo appears to exercise little or no influence on the island, the trade from North Borneo mainly going direct to Singapore and Hong Kong, and that of Sarawak to Singapore.

It may, perhaps, be hoped that, with the development of the undoubted riches of Borneo, the coal mines of Labuan may yet make the colony an important centre of trade; but it must be admitted that, so far, there has been no indication that such hopes are likely to be realized in the near future.

BRUNEI.

About thirty miles from Labuan, near the South-west corner of Brunei Bay, lies the town of Brunei, the capital of what is left of the great Malay Sultanate, from which, as already stated, the name of Borneo is derived.

History.

Native histories state that the Sultanate was originally a dependency of the Hindu kingdom of Menjapahit in Java, which came to an end in 1473, and that the Mohammedan religion was introduced from the Malay peninsula at about that date. One of the earlier Sultans is said to have married a Chinese lady [1] and it is certain that from early times Chinese influence was strong in Brunei. The first mention of the Sultanate in Chinese history appears to be in the year 669, when an envoy was sent to Peking, and another embassy is recorded early in the fifteenth century. Reference has already been made to the Chinese trade with the North of Borneo, which is known to have been of great importance at least as early as the sixteenth century, and which, as has been seen,

[1] She is said to have been the daughter of the Chinese officer who finally, by an ingenious stratagem, obtained the jewel of the dragon of Mount Kinabalu (p. 261). See *The Book of the Descent of the Rajas of Brunei*, translated by Sir Hugh Low in the *Journal of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society* (1880).

lasted till misgovernment in Brunei and piracy on the seas put an end to it early in the nineteenth century. CHAPTER IV.

In the early years of the sixteenth century Brunei had risen to a position of considerable power, and the authority of the Sultan extended not only over the whole of the Northern part of Borneo, but even, it would seem, over the Sulu islands and part at least of the Philippines.[1] Its wealth and importance at this period are shown by the description given by Pigafetta of the magnificence of the Sultan's court and by the fact that the early navigators extended the name of the Sultanate to the whole of the island. Its riches appear to have been mainly due to the trade with China.

The relations of Brunei with the European Powers have already been sketched, and little remains to be added. Its prosperity seems to have begun to decline about the end of the sixteenth century, and by the middle of the nineteenth it had fallen very low. Civil war, misgovernment and disputed successions, coupled with the ravages of the pirates and the consequent loss of trade, had reduced it to the state of decay into which all the Malay kingdoms of the East have fallen when left to themselves.

Some outlying territory had been ceded to the Sultan of Sulu as early as 1704,[2] but the process of disintegration, which has been rapid in recent years, began with the grant of Sarawak to Rajah Brooke. Further cessions followed, and the dominions of the Sultan have been so diminished by grants to Sarawak and to the British North Borneo Company, that all that now remains to the Sultanate is two separate strips of territory lying as *enclaves* in the middle of the dominions of Sarawak. A step fatal to the fortunes of Brunei was taken in 1882, when the Baram river

[1] Pigafetta says that the son of the King of Luzon was Captain-General of the King of Burné (Brunei).

[2] See above, p. 243 n.

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was ceded to Sarawak. The warlike Kayans of that district had been the principal instrument by which the Sultan and the ruling chiefs maintained their authority in other parts of the territory, and the loss of their services was soon felt. The inhabitants of the Limbang district close to Brunei and of the Trusan district further to the East had long been in a state alternately of open rebellion or of passive resistance, and when they again broke into open revolt in 1884 the Sultan found it impossible to reduce them to obedience. In 1885 he was obliged to cede the Trusan district to Sarawak, in default of payment of compensation for the murder by the insurgents of some Sarawak Dyaks.[1] The disturbances in the Limbang territory lasted almost uninterruptedly until 1890, when Sir Charles Brooke, in order to put an end to the disorder in a country adjoining his new possessions on the Trusan river, annexed the district. The Limbang river lies at the very doors of the capital, the creek on which Brunei stands being probably an old mouth of the Limbang, and its importance to the town was recognized in the common local saying that 'the Limbang is the life (or "the rice pot") of Brunei'. Its loss therefore completed the ruin of the Sultanate, and the Sultan and his nobles have since that date lived a hand to mouth existence on the revenues of the small extent of territory still left to them, aided by the annual subsidies paid by Sarawak and North Borneo for the districts ceded to them.

Present extent of the Sultanate.

The dominions still left to the Sultan comprise an area of some 4,000 square miles. The principal districts are Brunei, lying on the river of that name, which runs South-West from Brunei Bay, Muara Besar and Muara Damit to the North of Brunei, Belait and Tutong further to the West, reaching to the Sarawak border near the Baram river, and Tamburong

[1] It is said that these murders were the result of an unfortunate misunderstanding due to the fact that the Dyaks were wearing trousers—garments which the Trusan Muruts were only accustomed to see on the limbs of the Brunei Malays, against whom they were in rebellion.

and Laboh, which are further to the East and are cut off from Brunei owing to the occupation of the Limbang by Sarawak. CHAPTER IV.

The town of Brunei, which lies about twelve miles from the river mouth, is built mostly in the Brunei river, the houses standing on piles in the manner described by Pigafetta in the sixteenth century. Pigafetta asserts that at the time of his visit there were 25,000 'fires or families' in the town. If by this expression he meant 25,000 separate houses, the approximate number of the population would be 375,000[1], but even if, as is possible, he means that more than one family inhabited the same house, the population must still have been many times greater than it is now. At present the inhabitants are said to number 10,000 or 12,000. The houses are ruinous, and the town has fallen into a state of decay. The only sign of industry is the presence of a cutch-factory,[2] which occupies the site of the former factory of the East India Company. The river extends about ten miles beyond the town, and at its head is situated the small district of Limau Manis. *Brunei town.*

The Muara districts between Brunei and the sea are of some importance, as they contain coal mines, now leased to the Rajah of Sarawak, who has constructed wharves and sheds at Brooketon in connexion with his works. Rajah Brooke has also opened another mine on Pulau Berembang in the Brunei river, but operations have recently been suspended. *Muara Besar and Muara Damit.*[3]

The Government of Brunei is theoretically a despotism, the Sultan being supreme, but actually the country has been divided into a number of practically independent fiefs, the *Government.*

[1] Sir Spenser St. John, formerly Consul-General for Borneo, states that fifteen persons is a fair average to allow for the inhabitants of a Brunei house.

[2] Cutch is a dye-stuff extracted from the bark of the mangrove tree, which grows all over the coast districts.

[3] Muara = 'river-mouth'; Besar = 'large'; Damit = 'small'.

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revenues of many districts being owned by the principal chiefs either as their hereditary private property or as appanages of their offices. According to the theory of the Constitution the Sultan should be assisted by four principal Ministers (Wazirs), usually members of the royal family, the Pengirans (= Chiefs) Bendahara, Di Gadong, Temenggong, and Pemancha, and another of less rank, the Shahbandar; the Bendahara being responsible for internal affairs, the Temenggong Commander-in-Chief, the Pengiran Di Gadong Treasurer, and the Pengiran Pemancha the latter's deputy; while the functions of the Shahbandar are those of a Minister of Commerce. Of recent years, however, practice has hardly followed the theory, since the vacancies in the ministerial body have been left unfilled in order that the Sultan may draw the revenues of the vacant offices. No Temenggong has been appointed since 1885, when the last holder of that office became Sultan, and the post of the Pengiran Di Gadong has also been vacant for several years. As has already been stated, a British Resident has now been appointed, with whom the real work of government will rest.

Finances, &c.

No figures of the revenue or expenditure are available. The system of taxation has been almost purely arbitrary, the amount obtained being whatever the Sultan and the Pengirans could extort. With the rapid decline of the Sultan's power and of the extent of his territory, the revenue from taxation has fallen practically to nothing, and the incomes of the Sultan and his ministers have been almost solely derived from the yearly payments for the lands ceded to the Rajah of Sarawak and the British North Borneo Company, and the sums paid by the Chinese traders, to whom the gambling and opium farms, and monopolies for the sale of various articles, and for the right to collect import and export duties have been granted.

Till quite recently brass guns, of which there was formerly a factory in the town, formed a part of the currency of

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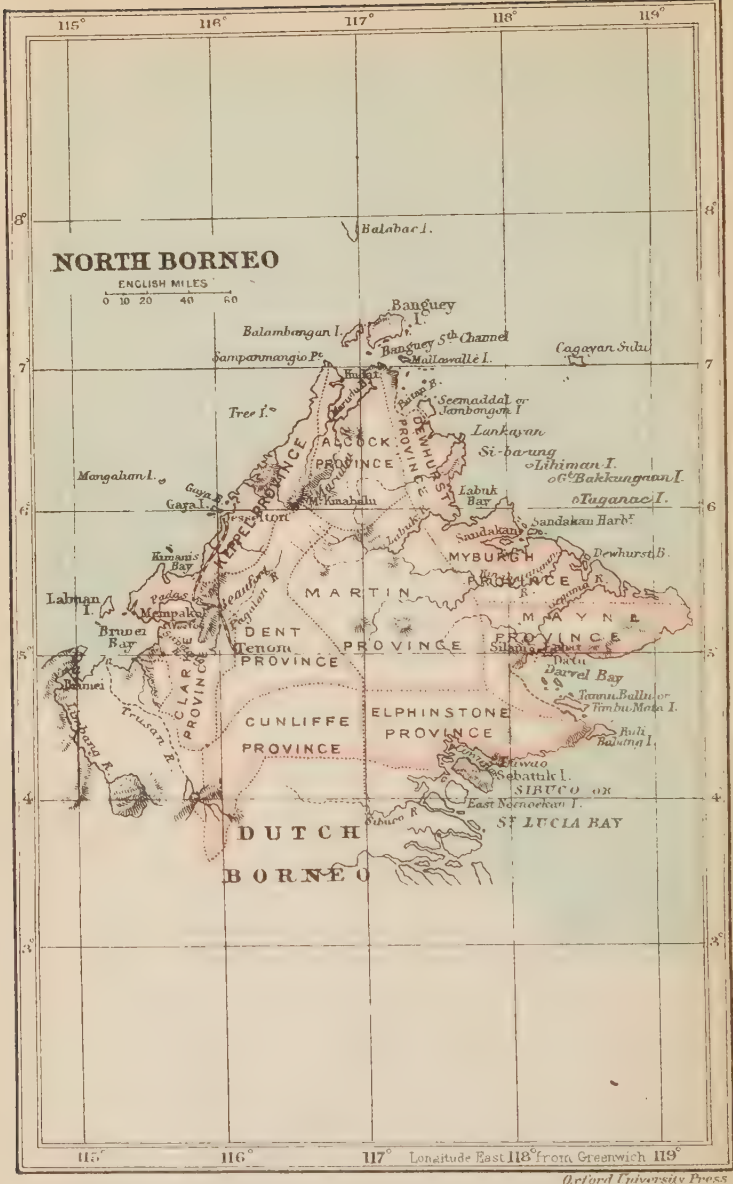

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Brunei. Of late years the currency has consisted of silver dollars and of the coins of Sarawak and North Borneo. Some years ago the Sultan issued a small copper coinage of his own, but the experiment was soon abandoned. CHAPTER IV.

In addition to the coal and iron in the districts at the mouth of the Brunei river, oil has been discovered in several parts of Brunei, antimony has been found in the Belait district, and gold and iron are said to exist, but the state of decay into which the Sultanate has fallen has prevented any serious attempt to develop its resources. At present the exports consist of cutch, from the factory mentioned above, and sago and jungle produce, chiefly from the Belait and Tutong districts. No figures exist from which the value of the trade can be ascertained, but it has been estimated that the imports and exports each approximate to a quarter of a million dollars yearly. *Products, Trade, &c.*

The climate of Brunei, like that of Labuan, is said to be generally healthy, and the heat not oppressive for the tropics, but Europeans suffer from the usual tropical fevers. The inhabitants of the town of Brunei have recently been visited by severe epidemics of small-pox. *Climate and health.*

The population of the Sultanate is roughly estimated at 30,000; the number tending to decrease owing to emigration to Sarawak and North Borneo. Besides the Malays of Brunei, it comprises Kadayans, Muruts, mostly in the Laboh and Tamburong districts, and Dusuns on the Belait river. There are also about 500 Chinese in the country. *Population.*

NORTH BORNEO.

The territory held by the British North Borneo Company includes the whole of the Northern end of the island, together with the islands within three leagues of the coast, of which the most important are Balambangan and Banguey, to the former of which reference has already been made. The *Geography, area, &c.*

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Company's territory is bounded by the sea on all sides but the South and the South-West. On the South it is coterminous with the Dutch possessions, the boundary, which was settled in 1891, corresponding roughly to latitude 4° 10′ N., and on the South-West with the possessions of the Rajah of Sarawak. Several additions to the area originally granted by the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu have been acquired by cession from Brunei, and the territory now comprises about 31,000 square miles[1]: it is therefore slightly larger than Scotland and slightly smaller than Ireland. The long coast-line, about 900 miles in length, is deeply indented and contains several excellent harbours. The principal town and the headquarters of the Government is Sandakan, which lies some little distance up the bay of that name on the East coast. At the census of 1901 it contained, with its suburbs, a population of 9,541, of whom nearly 4,000 were Chinese. Sandakan Bay, which is nearly land-locked, forms a magnificent harbour, about fifteen miles long by five broad, which is the centre of the trade of the East coast. Sandakan is about 1,200 miles from Hong Kong, 1,000 from Singapore, 600 from Manila, and 1,600 from Port Darwin. Other important settlements on the East coast are Lahat Datu, in Darvel Bay, a centre of the tobacco trade, and Tawao, at the entrance to Cowie Harbour, near the Southern boundary of the Company's territory. The principal settlement on the North is Kudat, in Marudu Bay, once famous as a headquarters of the pirates. On the West coast the chief settlement is the growing town of Jesselton, the terminus of the railway. The town stands on Gaya Bay, which forms a fine natural harbour, said to contain some 10 square miles of good anchorage. Jetties have been constructed at which vessels up to 2,000 tons burden can load and discharge.

Towns, &c.

The Company have also formed several settlements inland, but the greater part of the interior is still covered

[1] The original concessions were about 20,000 square miles in area.

with jungle and only imperfectly known. Away from the sea the country consists mainly of highlands, interspersed with open valleys and wide plateaux, the highest mountain in the country being Kinabalu[1] (13,680 feet), the central feature of a range which runs parallel with the West coast at a distance of about 20 miles.

Rivers.

The rivers of North Borneo are numerous and of great importance to the territory, since, in the absence of roads, they form the main channels of communication. On the West side, however, their value is reduced by the fact that they are much broken by rapids, which impede navigation.

In this part of the territory the most important stream is the Padas, which flows through a very fertile district and debouches near the Western extremity of Brunei Bay. It is navigable for steam launches of shallow draught for a distance of between 50 and 60 miles. On the North the chief river is the Marudu, which flows into the bay of that name. The longest and most important river in the State is the Kinabatangan, which enters the sea through a swampy delta, about 50 miles in breadth, not far from the town of Sandakan. Steam launches can make their way for about 60 miles up the river and it is navigable by boats for at least 40 miles further. Its source has not yet been accurately determined, though it has been explored for a distance of about 350 miles from the mouth.

Climate.

The climate of North Borneo, though tropical, is equable and not unhealthy. The temperature varies from 70° to 90°, but the heat is not oppressive, owing to the prevalence of light breezes. The winds are regular, the North-Eastern monsoon

[1] Kinabalu = 'Chinese widow', and this name and others into which the word 'Kina' enters (e.g. Kinabatangan) afford evidence of the important part played by the Chinese in the history of Borneo. The native story is that the mountain was the home of a dragon, who owned a jewel much coveted by the Emperor of China. Numbers of the emissaries sent by the Emperor to obtain possession of the jewel were devoured by the dragon, and from this circumstance the mountain acquired its name.

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blowing from October or November to March or April, and the South-Western for the remainder of the year. Typhoons are unknown. The average annual rainfall varies in different parts of the territory from 80 to 120 inches.

Animals. The country contains numerous wild animals: the elephant[1] and the rhinoceros being found in some districts on the East coast and the orang-outan in the jungles of the interior. Bears, cheetahs, wild cattle, and wild pigs, which latter are a favourite food of the native tribes, are met with throughout the territory. The absence of the tiger, so common in the Malay Peninsula, is noticeable. Pythons and many other varieties of snakes are common, and the swamps and rivers swarm with crocodiles.

Government. Unlike most Chartered Companies, the British North Borneo Company has never taken advantage of its right to trade, but confines itself to the work of government, which is carried on through a Court of Directors in London, and a Governor[2], Residents, and other officers in Borneo. For administrative purposes the country is divided into ten provinces—Alcock and Dewhurst in the North, Myburgh, Mayne, and Elphinstone in the East, Dent and Cunliffe in the South, Keppel in the West, Clarke in the South-West, and Martin in the centre.

Law, &c. The laws in force are based on the Indian codes and on a number of the ordinances of the Eastern Colonies and the Federated Malay States, which have been adapted to local conditions. Military force is represented by an armed constabulary, about 600 in number, consisting partly of Sikhs and Pathans, partly of Malays, and other natives of Borneo.

Finances, Trade, &c. The currency until 1905 was based on the ordinary silver

[1] Pigafetta mentions that he and his companions, when they visited Brunei, were conveyed to the palace on elephants—a mode of travel which seems curiously out of place in a town built mostly in the river.

[2] The officially-recognized title of this officer is 'Principal Representative of the British North Borneo Company in North Borneo.'

dollar of the Far East; in that year the Straits Settlements' dollar was adopted as the standard coin. The Company has its own nickel and copper subsidiary coinage and its own note issue. CHAPTER IV.

The revenue for the year 1883, the first for which figures are available, was $77,103; in 1904 it was $978,955[1], the proceeds of land sales being included in both cases; the expenditure in 1904 was $609,927[1], as against $391,547 in 1883. The revenue is mainly derived from the opium, tobacco, and spirit farms, import duties, royalties or export duties on jungle produce, timber and tobacco, land sales, profits on note issue and coinage, and a poll-tax on adult natives.

The imports, which in the year ending June, 1884, were valued at $512,785, amounted in 1904 to nearly $3,000,000, while the value of exports in the same period had risen from about $260,000 to over four and a quarter million dollars.

Products.

The mineral resources of the Company's territory are still imperfectly known, but gold and iron exist, though the former has not yet been worked on any large scale and the latter not at all, and traces of copper and antimony have been found. Good coal exists in the neighbourhood of Cowie Harbour on the East coast, and recently very large deposits of manganese ore have been discovered in the North. The mine fields are being connected by a light railway with the port of shipment at Marudu Bay. Oil-springs have also been found, though they have not yet proved a source of much profit; and there is some possibility that diamonds may be discovered.[2]

For the present, the main riches of the territory consist of forest and agricultural products, great quantities of valuable timber being available, while practically every

[1] These figures include the revenue and expenditure of Labuan, then being administered by the Company.

[2] Reference has been made above to the former large trade in diamonds from the West of Borneo.

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tropical and sub-tropical plant can be grown with success. Of the cultivated products the most important is tobacco, to which the soil and climate of North Borneo have proved to be exceptionally well suited, while sago, tapioca, pepper, cocoanuts, and a little coffee are also exported. Among the other articles exported are gutta-percha, rubber[1], camphor, resin, rattans, beeswax, cutch, and the bêche-de-mer and edible birds' nests, for which there is always a large demand in China. Practically the whole of the trade is with Hong Kong or with Singapore, from which latter port the products of the territory find their way to Europe.

Communications.

There is regular steamer communication with Singapore and Hong Kong, and North Borneo is connected by cable through Labuan with both these ports, and thus with the rest of the world. Sandakan, the capital, is connected by telegraph with Mempakul on the West coast, the landing place of the cable from Labuan; and other stations are joined by branches to this main line. Roads are practically non-existent, with the exception of bridle-paths, but the Company has recently constructed metre-gauge railways, with a total length of about 120 miles. The main line runs from Jesselton through Beaufort to Weston on Brunei Bay, a branch some 30 miles long running from Beaufort to Tenom, in the interior, and an extension is contemplated from the latter place to Cowie Harbour, near the South-Eastern boundary.

Population.

The population of North Borneo is estimated at about 120,000[2], including about 200 Europeans and some 16,000 Chinese. The remainder of the inhabitants on the coast are mainly Brunei Malays, Bajaus, Illanuns, and Sulus, the descendants of the famous pirate tribes. Further inland are settlements of the Dusuns, who show some skill in the cultivation of rice, while the interior is peopled with half-savage Muruts.

[1] i.e. wild rubber from the forests. Recently plantations of Para rubber (*Hevea Brasiliensis*) have been started, and are said to be doing well.

[2] Some estimates say 200,000.

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General summary.

The progress of the territory under the Company's rule has, perhaps, not been so rapid as might have been expected in view of the great natural resources of the country, but large allowance must be made for the difficulties inseparable to the introduction of a settled administration into a country peopled by tribes, who, half a century ago, were known only as fierce and inveterate pirates and slave raiders or as semi-savage head-hunters, and for the fact that peaceful development has repeatedly been interrupted by the necessity for punitive expeditions against rebel chiefs. Within the last few years the trade of the interior was practically suspended for months, owing to a formidable rising led by a Malay, named Mat Salleh, who twice captured and looted a station of the Company, and generally kept the country in a ferment until he was killed in an attack on his hut in January, 1900; and minor risings have occurred even since that date.

To the Empire, North Borneo might conceivably prove of great service in the event of a war in which the mastery of the Southern Pacific or the Far Eastern seas was at stake, since on the East the magnificent harbour of Sandakan would afford a point of vantage from which to watch the Straits of Macassar and the route from China to Australia and on the other coast Gaya Bay practically commands the main route from China to the Malay Peninsula and the Indian Ocean; while the neighbouring coal fields of Labuan and Brooketon on the one side and of Cowie Harbour on the other would afford an ample supply of fuel, capable of being used in an emergency for naval purposes.

SARAWAK.

Area and geography.

The district originally ceded to Sir James Brooke comprised an area of about 3,000 square miles, the coast-line extending from Tanjong Datu, near the Western end of Borneo, for about 60 miles East-South-East until it reached the Samarahan river. To the South it was bounded by the territory under Dutch protection, which extends also over

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a small strip of land between Tanjong Datu and the sea on the West. The distance from the coast to the boundary of the Dutch territory on the South averaged about 50 miles. The Rajah's territories were greatly increased in 1862, when the rivers between the Samarahan and Kadurong Point to the North-East of the Bintulu river were obtained, the coast-line being thus extended to about 300 miles, and in 1880 the boundary in this direction was advanced about 100 miles further by the acquisition of the districts to the West and South of a line drawn some three miles to the East of the Baram river. That line is the present boundary between Sarawak and Brunei in this direction, but since that date further large additions have been made in the North-East of the Brunei territories. In 1885 and 1890 the Trusan and Limbang districts were acquired in the circumstances already mentioned[1], and at the end of 1904 a district on the Lawas river to the North-East of the Trusan was ceded by the British North Borneo Company. As a result of these extensions. the territory now under the Rajah's control comprises about 42,000[2] square miles—an area rather larger than that of Ireland and Wales together. The Southern boundary is formed by several mountain ranges, which divide Sarawak from the Dutch territories. The interior of the country is mountainous, containing several ranges, mostly of limestone or sandstone, which rise to a height of between 4,000 and 8,000 feet. Towards the sea there are alluvial plains, intersected by numerous rivers, the most important of which are the Rejang and the Baram. The former is navigable for steamers for about 160 miles, but the navigation of the latter is impeded by a bar across its mouth.

Towns.

The chief town in the State is Kuching, on the Sarawak river, about 23 miles inland. It contains about 20,000

[1] See above, under Brunei, p. 256.

[2] This is the figure given in the article on Sarawak in the Colonial Office List, the proofs of which have been corrected by the Sarawak Government. Most books of reference give it as 50,000 square miles.

inhabitants, and is the seat of government. Sibu, on the Rejang, and Muka on the river of that name, are also towns of some importance, and there are a number of smaller settlements. CHAPTER IV.

Government.

In the first years of his rule in Sarawak, Sir James Brooke had shown himself desirous of placing his State under British protection, and even of transferring it directly to the control of the British Crown, but Her Majesty's Government displayed no great eagerness to accept the charge, and a change in the Rajah's views was caused by the violent attacks of certain English politicians on his proceedings in connection with the expeditions against the pirate tribes. These attacks culminated in a Royal Commission, which sat at Singapore in 1853, to inquire into Sir James Brooke's proceedings. The Commission's decisions were in favour of the Rajah, but the manner in which he had been treated appears to have left him with a not unnatural sense of having been ill-used, and the opportunity of establishing a British Protectorate in the country was lost. In 1863 the British Government recognized Sarawak's independence of Brunei, to which, since the appointment of Rajah Brooke to the government it had paid a merely nominal allegiance; and until 1888 the country was both in theory and in practice an independent kingdom. In the latter year the foreign relations of the State were placed under British control, as has already been mentioned, but except for this restriction Sarawak retains its independence.

The Government is an absolute monarchy, now in the hands of Sir James Brooke's nephew, Sir Charles Brooke, G.C.M.G., who succeeded him in 1868. He is assisted by two State Councils. The Supreme Council—which consists of the Rajah's son and heir-apparent, two of the Chief Residents, and the four principal native officers of the Government,—meets once a month and deals with legislation and general matters of administration. The General Council

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consists of about fifty members, including the chief officers of the State, both European and native. Its functions are purely advisory, and it meets only once in three years.

For administrative purposes the State is divided into four divisions, each under the charge of a Resident, who is assisted by a staff of European and native officers.

Products, &c.

The mineral wealth of the country is great. Gold is worked on a considerable scale, and the export of gold and gold ore in 1904 was valued at over $1,800,000. Silver, diamonds, antimony, quicksilver, and coal are also exported, while there is a considerable trade in timber, gutta, rubber, sago, and most other kinds of tropical agricultural and jungle produce. The total value of exports in 1904 was estimated at about $9,500,000, the imports being valued at over $8,000,000. The bulk of the trade is with Singapore, from which port there is regular steamer communication with Kuching.

Finances.

The revenue for 1904 exceeded $1,300,000, the expenditure being a little over $1,200,000. The principal sources of revenue are the opium, gambling, arrack and pawnbroking farms, import and export duties, and mining royalties.

Population.

The population of Sarawak is estimated at about 500,000, including Malays, Kadayans, Muruts, Kayans, Dyaks, and other tribes, as well as a considerable number of Chinese.

General Summary.

Sarawak presents a unique example of a native State which has been rescued from the ruin into which it had fallen, not by the direct interference of a European power, but by the enterprise of a private person, who devoted his life to its regeneration, and has left as his memorial a flourishing community, governed on Oriental lines by a European, who is at the same time an absolute monarch and, in his private capacity, a subject of the King of England.

Sir James Brooke was compelled on more than one occasion to resort to force to secure the recognition of

his authority, and in 1857 he was actually driven from his capital and the town burnt in an insurrection of Chinese gold miners, who had long enjoyed practical independence and resented his interference in their affairs. Even under his successor punitive expeditions into the interior have at times been necessary, but on the whole the natives are, to all appearance, well content with the rule of their white Rajahs.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO BORNEO.

Of the very numerous works on the subject of Borneo, the following may be noticed :—

Rajah Brooke's Journals, edited by Capt. RODNEY MURRAY, R.N. 1848.

Expedition to Borneo of H.M.S. Dido, by Capt. the Hon. H. KEPPEL, R.N. 1847.

Life in the Forests of the Far East. By SPENSER ST. JOHN. 1862.

Rajah Brooke, by Sir SPENSER ST. JOHN (in 'Builders of Greater Britain' Series). 1899.

Natives of Sarawak and British North Borneo, by H. LING ROTH. 1896.

The *Journals of the Straits Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society* contain a number of valuable articles on Borneo. Secial mention may be made of those by Sir HUGH LOW and Sir W. H. TREACHER referred to in the text.

Section VI

THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES IN CHINA

Section VI.

Early European relations with China.

Known vaguely to the Ancient World as the land of the Sinae or the Seres, China or Cathay was visited overland in the Middle Ages by Marco Polo and other travellers from the West; but it was not till the early years of the sixteenth century that European ships first reached its shores.

The Portuguese.

Portuguese voyagers are said to have touched at ports on the Southern coast as early as 1508, but the first expedition of any importance appears to have been one which left Goa in 1516 under the command of Fernão Peres de Andrade. In the following year Peres arrived at Canton, and obtained permission to erect a factory on the island of Veniaga (Shang Ch'wan), some eighteen leagues from that town, and for many years after this date the Portuguese were the only European traders in China. In 1557 they were allowed to establish themselves at Macao, where they gradually strengthened their position until the town came to be regarded as a Portuguese possession, though it was not until 1887 that the Chinese Government consented to recognize it as such.

Besides Macao, the island of Formosa, lying off the coast of China, was also included in the long list of Portuguese dependencies; but no factory or settlement was formed in it, and Macao was the only permanent foothold of Portugal in China.

The Spaniards.

From 1543, the date of the taking of the Philippines, the Spaniards carried on a trade between Manila and the

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Chinese coasts, and in 1626 and 1629 two Spanish forts were planted in the island of Formosa (Spain and Portugal being at this time under one Crown). SECTION VI.

The Dutch.

In 1624 the Dutch forced the Chinese to give them liberty to trade with China, and to permit them to settle at Taiwan on the coast of Formosa. In 1642 they drove the Spaniards out of that island; but in 1662 they were themselves driven out by the Chinese pirate Koxinga, and thenceforward they held no possession in the Chinese seas.

The English.

In 1634 an attempt was made by the association of English merchants, known as Courten's Association, to place a factory at Canton. The attempt came to nothing, and the first English factory in China appears to have been one established for a few years at Amoy by the East India Company about 1670. From about 1684, however, down to the beginning of the reign of Queen Victoria, Canton was the port at which the trade between Great Britain and China was carried on. The trade was on both sides strictly limited and confined. On the British side it was monopolised by the East India Company. On the Chinese side it was placed exclusively in the hands of certain Canton merchants,[1] called Hong merchants.

Down to 1834 there is little to note about the dealings between the two countries. The trade was carried on with constant and not unnatural friction between Europeans and Chinese, which was not allayed by the abortive embassies of Lord Macartney in 1792 and Lord Amherst in 1816. In 1834, the monopoly of the East India Company having expired, the British Government, at the request of the Chinese authorities, appointed a superintendent of British trade at Canton; and Lord Napier was accordingly sent out

[1] Exclusive privileges were given to these merchants by the Chinese Government about 1755, or rather earlier. See Col. Yule's *Glossary* under 'Hong'. The word has nothing to do with the name Hong Kong.

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in that capacity. The relations between English and Chinese, however, became more and more strained, the importation of opium being one of the grounds of dispute [1], and open hostilities broke out in 1839. In January, 1841, the island of Hong Kong, then a barren rock inhabited only by a few thousand fishermen and peasants, was ceded to the English by the special Chinese Commissioner Kishen, and, though the cession was at the time repudiated by the Chinese Government, it was confirmed and made absolute by the Treaty of Nanking in August, 1842. By the same treaty the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai were opened to British trade.

Cession of Hong Kong.

Possession of Hong Kong was taken in 1841. In 1842 it was proclaimed a free port, and a free port it has since remained. In 1843 it was constituted a Crown colony.

In 1856 war again broke out between Great Britain and China, in consequence of the capture by the Chinese of a trading vessel, the *Arrow*, sailing under British colours. Lord Elgin was sent out to China as Minister Extraordinary, and after a series of warlike operations, including the taking of Canton, the treaty of Tientsin was signed in June, 1858. This however was not the end. In 1860 the British Ambassador was obstructed, when on his way to Peking to obtain a ratification of the treaty, and it was not until a joint English and French expedition had forced the passage of the river Peiho, taken the Taku forts, and marched on Peking, that the Convention of Peking was signed in October, 1860, ratifying the Tientsin Treaty. The Treaty and the Convention formed the basis of the present relations between Great Britain and China, additional ports in China were opened to British trade,

[1] As the opium question has given rise to considerable controversy it is worth noting that the objections of the Chinese Government to the import of the drug were based not on moral but on financial grounds. It had the effect of turning the balance of trade against China and causing large exports of specie, and this was contrary to the wishes of the Government.

provision was made for the permanent residence at Peking of a British representative, and, by the Convention of Peking, the promontory of Kowloon, opposite the island of Hong Kong on the Northern side of the harbour, was definitely ceded to Her Majesty's Government, having been already leased to them by the authorities at Canton. SECTION VI.

During the two Anglo-Chinese wars the island of Chusan had been held by British troops, and many years later[1] Port Hamilton, an island off the Southern coast of Korea, was occupied by Great Britain as a naval base. Chusan however was restored at the termination of hostilities, and Port Hamilton was abandoned after a few months, and no part of China proper, with the exception of Hong Kong, Kowloon, and Macao, was permanently held by a European Government until the last years of the nineteenth century. *Temporary occupation of Port Hamilton.*

In November, 1897, in consequence of the murder of two Chinese missionaries in Shantung, Germany took possession of the port of Kiaochau on the East coast of that province, and in the following year the port was leased to the German Government for ninety-nine years. Other powers followed suit. Russia secured a lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan in the Liaotung peninsula, which has now passed into the hands of Japan. France obtained, on similar terms, the port of Kwang-Chau-Wan in the province of Kwang Si, to the North of the island of Hainan: Great Britain the territory of Weihaiwei, which lies on the Northern coast of Shantung at the mouth of the gulf of Pechili almost directly opposite Port Arthur. *Lease of Weihaiwei.*

The Convention of July 1st, 1898, under which Weihaiwei is held, states that the territory, which includes the island of Liukung[2] and a strip of the mainland, is leased in order to provide Great Britain with a suitable naval harbour in North China and for the better protection of British commerce in the neighbouring seas. It provides also that Great Britain shall

[1] In 1885.

[2] Or Liukungtao. Tao = island.

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have 'the right to erect fortifications, station troops, or take any other measures necessary for defensive purposes' within a considerable area surrounding the leased territory, and also to acquire in that area such sites as may be necessary for water-supply, communications and hospitals. On the other hand, it was agreed that Chinese vessels of war should retain the right to use the waters of the leased territory.

Extension of the Colony of Hong Kong.

While Weihaiwei was already in British hands, but before the formal Convention had been signed, a further addition was made to the territory in China under the administration of Great Britain by the acquisition of a considerable area on the mainland North of Kowloon, and of a number of islands round Hong Kong. These districts were leased for ninety-nine years by a Convention signed on June 9th, 1898, the reason given being that it had for many years past been recognized that an extension of Hong Kong territory was necessary for the proper defence and protection of the colony. Possession was taken early in the following year. The lease was not at first favourably regarded by the inhabitants of the territory, and disturbances took place, which necessitated the despatch of a military force. On April 18th, 1899, an engagement was fought in which the malcontents, some 2,600 strong, were dispersed and peace has not since been disturbed. In connexion with these operations the town and valley of Sham Chun, across the present frontier, were occupied by British troops, but they were evacuated after about three months, when it had become clear that no further troubles were to be apprehended. The Convention had provided that Chinese officials should continue to exercise jurisdiction in the city of Kowloon, which lies within the leased territory, 'except so far as may be inconsistent with the military requirements for the defence of Hong Kong,' but in consequence of the disturbances above referred to, it was found necessary to occupy the city, and before the end of 1899 it was definitely included in the area under British control.

HONG KONG[1]

SECTION VI. *Government and Administration.*

Hong Kong is a Crown colony of the ordinary type, the local administration being in the hands of a Governor, an Executive Council and a Legislative Council. The Executive Council consists of six officials in addition to the Governor, and two nominated unofficial members. The Legislative Council consists of the Governor, as president, seven officials and six unofficials, of whom two are representatives of the Justices of the Peace and the Chamber of Commerce respectively, and two are usually Chinese.

A Board, containing an elected element, is entrusted with the supervision of sanitary matters.

Law and justice.

The law in force at Hong Kong is the law of England as it existed at the time of the cession, supplemented and modified by local ordinances; and justice is administered by a supreme court, consisting of a Chief Justice and a Puisne Judge, and by three Police Magistrates.

The nearness of the island of Hong Kong to the mainland, and the fact that the colony has since 1860 included territory on the mainland, have placed special difficulties in the way of the colonial Government with regard to the maintenance of law and order. The colony has at once been a receptacle for the criminal classes of the Canton province, who are attracted by the mildness of the English law as compared with the drastic system of punishments in force in China, and also one of the main outlets for emigrants from China to other lands. Consequently, from time to time, special ordinances have been passed to check the influx of criminals by deporting them to their own country, to counteract the undue influence of the Chinese secret societies, and to prevent coolie emigration from reproducing under another name and in a modified form the evils of the slave trade.

Area and Geography.

The island of Hong Kong is one of a scattered group

[1] A map of Hong Kong will be found opposite page 85.

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of islands known, from the prevalence of piracy in the neighbouring waters, as the Ladrones, which lie at the mouth of the Canton River. It is situated on the Eastern side of the estuary, and is, at its nearest point, less than a quarter of a mile distant from the mainland, the narrow strait being known as the Lyeemoon Pass.

The area of the colony is given at 329 square miles including the leased territory. The island of Hong Kong contains 29 square miles, the promontory of Kowloon $2\frac{2}{3}$, and the two little islets, Stonecutter's Island and Aplichao Island, $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ of a square mile respectively.

Hong Kong Island.

The island is very irregular in shape, being a rough and broken ellipse with two long promontories running out to the South and South-East. It consists mainly of mountainous ridges running from East to West, the highest point being the Victoria Peak, which rises to over 1,800 feet and is the favourite place of residence of the European members of the community, especially in the hot season. The coast line is very deeply indented, especially on the Southern side, where Taitam Bay runs inland for some $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. Along the Northern shore the city of Victoria stretches for about 4 miles and between the town and the mainland is one of the finest and most picturesque harbours in the world, with a water area of approximately 10 miles.

The commercial life of the colony is centred in the space between the hills and the sea shore. The lower slopes are covered with residential buildings, and a tramway connects these parts of the town with the Peak. A wide esplanade known as the Praya, the Western part of which has recently been greatly extended by reclamations of the fore-shore, runs along the sea-front, and is largely occupied by wharves and go-downs. In the centre of it lie the Naval Yard and docks.

Victoria is the only town on the island, but there are also a number of villages, the most important being Shau-ki-wan on the North-East, which is connected by a tramway with

Victoria, Aberdeen on the South-West which contains two large docks, and Stanley on the South-East. Troops were formerly stationed in the two latter places, but were withdrawn owing to the heavy mortality among them. SECTION VI.

Of the small neighbouring islands, which formed part of the colony previous to the recent extension, the most important is Stonecutter's Island, lying to the North-West of Hong Kong, and to the West of the Kowloon Peninsula. The island, which is about a mile in length and a quarter of a mile in breadth, is fortified and formerly contained the gunpowder dépôt of the colony, which has now been removed to Green Island.

Kowloon.

Directly opposite Victoria lies the peninsula of Kowloon[1], which, as has been seen, was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of 1860. The settlement lies mostly along the Western and Southern shores of the peninsula, and consists of Yaumati, Tsim-sha-tsui, Sham-shui-po, Hung-hom and other villages. The population numbered nearly 44,000 in 1901, and this part of the colony is rapidly growing in importance and contains extensive wharves, docks, and warehouses as well as a small Naval Yard. The Indian infantry who form the greater part of the garrison are stationed in the peninsula.

The Leased Territory.

Beyond Kowloon stretch the leased districts, known as the New Territory. The territory consists of a broad peninsula of irregular shape, and with a deeply-indented coast-line, having an area of over 300 square miles[2]. On the East it is washed by Mirs Bay and on the West by Deep Bay, the waters of both being included in the leased area. It includes a number of ranges of mountains, running up

[1] The Chinese form Kau-lung means 'nine dragons', and is said to refer to the nine prominent mountain peaks in the background of the peninsula.

[2] Statements as to the area of this territory vary greatly, some accounts placing it as high as 376 square miles. It is impossible to reconcile the figures given for the area of the component parts of the colony with that of 329 square miles given for the whole. The figures given in the Colonial Office List have therefore been taken.

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in places to a height of over 3,000 feet. The valleys between the ranges are very fertile, and sugar-cane, rice, and vegetables of all kinds are cultivated by the Chinese. The river of Sham Chun, which forms the Northern boundary, is the only navigable stream in the district.

The headquarters of the administration are at Tai-Po on Tolo Harbour, an estuary which runs far into the land on the Eastern side. A number of other villages are scattered throughout the territory, and in the Southern part, close to the borders of British Kowloon, is the walled city of Kowloon, which, as has been seen, was at first excluded from the British jurisdiction.

No minerals have yet been discovered in the territory[1], and its main value to Hong Kong consists in the fact that the possession of it safeguards Kowloon from attack on the land side.

A railway is about to be constructed from Kowloon to the border of the leased territory, at which point it is in contemplation that it should meet a projected line from Canton.

In addition to the peninsula, the leased territory includes a number of islands lying on every side of Hong Kong, the largest being Lan-tao on the West, which is considerably larger than Hong Kong and contains numerous native villages, with a total population of about 8,000, and Lamma island on the South-West.

Finances.

The revenue of the colony for 1904, including the receipts from Land Sales, amounted to $6,809,048[2], being more than three times as large as the revenue of 1894. The chief sources of revenue are the opium monopoly, municipal rates, for police, water, &c., rent of Crown property, Post Office receipts, licences and Court fees. The opium monopoly, which is in the hands of Chinese capitalists, brings in over $2,000,000 a year.

[1] Since this was written a discovery of iron has been reported in the newspapers.

[2] The currency of the colony is based on the silver dollar.

The main expenditure in recent years has been on Public Works, such as waterworks, sanitary improvements, foreshore reclamations, and the erection of schools, hospitals, and public offices. Twenty per cent. of the revenue, less certain deductions, is paid to the Imperial Government as a contribution towards the cost of the garrison.

The public debt amounts to about £1,500,000, including over a million pounds raised to cover advances made to the Chinese Viceroy at Wuchang. The money raised by loan for Colonial purposes was expended on various important public works.

Trade and Industries.

The growth of the trade of Hong Kong has been as rapid and as striking as that of its revenue.

Owing to the fact that Victoria is a free port no statistics of the value of the trade are available, but the records of the shipping frequenting the harbour show that Hong Kong is now one of the most important trading centres of the world.

The burden of the shipping entered and cleared in 1904 was over 19,000,000 tons, an increase of almost 90 per cent. on the figure for 1894.[1]

The trade is almost wholly a transit trade, the silk, tea, and other products of China being collected at Hong Kong and forwarded to Europe and America, while European manufactures, such as cotton and woollen goods, and the opium of India are brought to the colony for distribution through the South of China.

The colony itself produces practically nothing except granite, which is largely quarried both in the island and in Kowloon.

The industries, which are of growing importance, include sugar refineries, a cotton mill, a cement factory, and manufactories of rope and paper. Boatbuilding and work in and

[1] These figures do not include the junks engaged in foreign or local trade. If these vessels are included the total tonnage for 1904 is raised to nearly 25,000,000 tons.

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connected with the docks provides employment for a great part of the Chinese population.

Population.

At the census of 1901 the resident population of the colony was 283,975, exclusive of the military and naval establishments, amounting to 13,237, and of the population of the leased territories which was reckoned at 102,254. An enormous majority of the population is of Chinese origin, the numbers of that race living on the land in 1901 being 234,443, exclusive of the inhabitants of the New Territory, while more than 40,000 more were on board the vessels in the waters of the colony. The resident civil population of Europeans and Americans numbered 5,808 and the Eurasians 267[1]. Of the European community nearly 2,000 were Portuguese, practically all of whom were born in Macao or Hong Kong.

The main centre of population is the town of Victoria which in 1901 contained nearly 182,000 inhabitants: about 44,000 persons were resident in the Kowloon Peninsula, and some 14,000 in the villages of the island of Hong Kong.

When the English Government took possession of Hong Kong, the island was inhabited by some 7,500 Chinese squatters and fishermen, and the enormous growth of the Chinese population since that date may be taken as a proof of the confidence felt in British administration by one of the most conservative of Eastern races.

Education.

A considerable annual sum is devoted to education. Elementary education is given in Government Anglo-Chinese and Vernacular Schools, and in Grant-in-Aid Schools, founded by various religious bodies, while special schools have been established for the children of European and of Indian parents. Higher education is provided for by the

[1] This figure is probably too small. The census report says, 'The large majority of Eurasians in this colony dress in Chinese clothes, have been brought up and live in Chinese fashion and would certainly return themselves as Chinese.'

Queen's College. The total number of Government and aided schools in 1904 was eighty-one, with an average attendance of nearly 5,000. A College of Medicine was established in 1887 with a view to teaching medicine and surgery to Chinese, and is in receipt of a grant from the Government. SECTION VI.

Hong Kong lies just within the tropics. It is farther removed from the equator than any other of the Eastern dependencies of Great Britain, except Weihaiwei, and therefore enjoys more clearly defined changes of season than do the Straits Settlements or Borneo. At the same time, as has been shown, the island contains considerable changes of elevation within a very small area: and further, the Europeans stationed there can, in a comparatively short time and at a comparatively slight expense, pay flying visits to the more temperate regions of North China and Japan. But, notwithstanding these advantages, the climate of Hong Kong during part of the year tells on European constitutions. The summer months, from March to September inclusive, are months of great heat and rain: the South-West monsoon prevails during this time, and the city of Victoria, lying on the North of the island at the foot of a high range of hills, loses the benefit of the wind. From October to February the North-East monsoon prevails, little rain falls, and the air is comparatively cool and bracing. The temperature at Victoria varies from about 40° to 90°, the coolest month being January, the hottest August. The average annual rainfall is about 80 inches, mainly contributed by the summer months. From time to time Hong Kong is visited by typhoons, usually about the date of the autumn equinox. These disturbances formerly worked havoc among the shipping in the harbour and occasionally among the buildings on the land, but nowadays, owing to the timely warning given by the Observatory, which enables special precautions to be taken, they do little damage. *Climate and Health.*

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In its early years Hong Kong acquired the reputation of being a very unhealthy place of residence for Europeans: fever, said to be due to the disturbance of the soil which resulted from the building of the town, being rife and causing great mortality, especially among the troops of the British garrison. Matters have, however, greatly improved in the last half century and the colony is not now unhealthy, the death rate for 1904 being under seventeen per thousand.

During the last ten years the most prevalent disease among the Chinese inhabitants has been the bubonic plague which was introduced from Canton in 1894 and caused 2,547 deaths between the months of May and September in that year. Similar outbreaks have occurred in almost every year since that date and the disease appears now to have become endemic. Vigorous efforts have been made to deal with the situation, and large sums have been expended in improving the sanitary condition of Victoria by the resumption and destruction of insanitary properties, and the provision of open spaces, while stringent ordinances have been passed to prevent the overcrowding of Chinese tenement houses. These efforts have been so far successful that the mortality from plague fell in 1904 to 495 as against over 1,200 in the previous year and over 1,500 in 1901, though much still remains to be done before the Chinese quarters of the town can be placed in a satisfactory state.

In addition to other sanitary measures a large amount of money is now being devoted to improving the water-supply, which is mainly derived from reservoirs at Taitam on the South of the island.

Next to plague, the chief causes of death among the natives are beri-beri, malaria, and diseases of the respiratory organs. In recent years there has been a great diminution in the number of cases of malaria, owing to the work, undertaken by the Government, of draining the numerous watercourses in and around Victoria.

SECTION VI. *Distances.*

The great trading port of Shanghai is 800 miles to the North of Hong Kong. Yokohama in Japan is nearly 1,600 miles distant. The German leased territory of Kiaochau is about 1,000 miles, Port Arthur about 1,250, and Vladivostok about 1,650 miles to the North. The Portuguese settlement of Macao is close at hand, being only 40 miles from Hong Kong. Manila, the chief port in the American colony of the Philippine Islands lies at a distance of 650 miles, a little to the East of South. Saigon, the capital of French Indo-China, is about 900 miles to the South-West.

As regards other British colonies, Hong Kong is rather over 1,400 miles from Singapore. The connexion between the two ports is close and constant, and Hong Kong is the end of the chain of British dependencies round the South coast of Asia in which Singapore is so strong a link. It is still nearer to Borneo, being some 1,200 miles distant from both Labuan and Sandakan. About the same distance separates it from Weihaiwei, the other British dependency in China.

The colony is connected by cable with almost all parts of the world, and there is frequent and regular steam communication with Europe, America, and Australia.

A British commercial station off the coast of China and on the main trade-route to Canton was in the nature of things likely to attain a considerable degree of importance; but there have been several distinct factors in the progress of Hong Kong. Among them are the gradual habituation of the Chinese to British administration and British dealings, and in consequence the growing readiness of Chinese traders to settle in the colony; the emigration of Chinese through the port of Hong Kong to America and Australia in past years and now to the Malay Peninsula; the opening of the Suez Canal, which gave a fresh impulse to the trade with the far East; and the construction of the railway across the

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Canadian Dominion to British Columbia which practically gave a new direct route from Europe to China.

In the British empire Hong Kong holds the position not of a colony or settlement with resources of its own, but of a station half-military, half-commercial, which derives its importance entirely from the vast outside trade passing through its port. But though it is in one sense merely a British station in a foreign land, it must not be forgotten that the population has come to the island in consequence of the island being in British hands. It is a spot which has been colonized under the auspices of the British Government, though the colonists are not Englishmen but Chinese.

In the Malay Peninsula there is a large and growing Chinese community, in Labuan and North Borneo the Chinese element is strong, and there are Chinese in Australia, in British Columbia, and in other British colonies[1]; but it is only in Hong Kong and in the leased territory of Weihaiwei that Great Britain is brought into direct relations with China, and that a British Government rules an almost exclusively Chinese population.

WEIHAIWEI[2]

History.

Hong Kong, as has been seen, owes its importance to the British occupation. Weihaiwei, on the other hand, was a far more important place before it came into British hands than it is at present. Before the war between China and Japan in 1894–5, the magnificent harbour with its naval workshops and modern fortifications was second only to Port Arthur as a base for the fleet which guarded the Gulf of Pechili and the capital of the Chinese empire. Its loss in February, 1895, following on that of Port Arthur, entailed the destruction of the naval power of China.

[1] At the time of the census of 1901 it was estimated that there were about 1¼ million Chinese inhabitants in the British Empire and the number has undoubtedly largely increased in the last five years.

[2] A map of part of the territory of Weihaiwei will be found opposite page 241.

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The garrison of Liukungtao and what was left of the fleet in its waters surrendered to the Japanese forces on February 12, after operations extending over a period of about three weeks, during which the forts on the mainland had been captured and several men-of-war sunk in the harbour. *Capture by Japan.*

The Japanese continued to hold Weihaiwei as security for the war indemnity until May, 1898, when it passed into the keeping of Great Britain in the circumstances already described. The territory was formally leased under a Convention signed at Peking on July 1, of the same year. The dependency was at first administered by the senior naval officer on the station: in 1899, Colonel Dorward, R.E.[1], was appointed Military and Civil Commissioner, and on January 1, 1901, the dependency was placed under the control of the Colonial Office, a Civil Commissioner being appointed in the following year. Its history under British rule has been uneventful. Slight difficulties occurred in 1900, culminating in attacks on small survey parties by some of the villagers. These disturbances were, however, easily suppressed by the men of the Chinese regiment, and the inhabitants have now settled down peaceably and contentedly under British rule. During the Boxer troubles of 1900 the dependency was utilized by the force employed in the relief of the Peking Legations as a base and as a dépôt for the sick and wounded. *Lease to Great Britain.*

The first intention was to establish a fortified naval base at Weihaiwei, but in view of the great expense involved it was decided to discontinue the fortifications which had been begun, though it is still a flying naval base and a sanatorium for the fleet on the China Station.

Weihaiwei lies on the Northern side and towards the Eastern extremity of the promontory, which runs out into the sea on the North-East of the Province of Shantung. The leased territory includes 'the island of Liukungtao and all the *Geography.*

[1] Now Major-General Sir A. Dorward, K.C.B.

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islands in the bay of Weihaiwei, and a belt of land, 10 English miles wide, along the entire coast-line of the bay of Weihaiwei'.[1]

Liukungtao.

The total area is about 285 square miles, nearly twice the size of the Isle of Wight. Liukungtao lies at the mouth of the bay, which faces towards the North-East and is about six miles in width and between three and four in depth. The island is some two miles long and three-quarters of a mile broad, and has an area of about $1\frac{1}{4}$ square miles. It is a barren rock, traversed from West to East by a range of hills, the highest of which rises to a little over 500 feet. The population, which numbers about 4,000, is grouped in two villages on the Southern side. The former Chinese dockyards were situated near the South-Western extremity of the surrounding islets: the only one of any importance is Itao, which lies to the South of Liukungtao, and was formerly fortified.

The Mainland.

The territory on the mainland, which has a coast-line about 72 miles in length, consists mainly of ranges of rugged hills, rising in places to a height of 1,600 feet, and intersected by cultivated valleys. It contains no river of importance, the streams which water the valleys being dry through a great part of the year.

The only towns of any size are Mat'ou, or Port Edward, which is situated on the Northern side of the harbour, and is the seat of the government of the dependency, and the walled city of Weihaiwei on the West of the harbour. The latter town is excluded from the British jurisdiction, being ruled by Chinese officials. In addition, there are over 300 small villages scattered throughout the territory.

The total population of the dependency is estimated at about 150,000, practically all Chinese agriculturalists.

Beyond the leased territory stretches the 'sphere of influence' already alluded to, which has an area of about 1,500 square miles.

Government.

The Government of Weihaiwei is administered by a Commissioner, who is assisted by about a dozen European

[1] Convention of Peking: July 1, 1898.

officials. Legislative power is in his hands, the ordinances passed being subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The law in force is that of England, so far as it is applicable, modified by local ordinances, which have been largely based on those in force in Hong Kong and the other Eastern colonies. The village communities are governed through their own headmen in accordance with Chinese national customs. SECTION VI.

Justice is administered by a Magistrates' Court and by a High Court, presided over by one of the Judges of the Consular Court at Shanghai, who pays periodical visits to the dependency. Appeals lie to the Supreme Court of Hong Kong.

Finances. Up to the present year (1906) a small garrison, consisting of the Chinese Regiment of Infantry, has been maintained in the dependency. This force was raised in 1899 in the Shantung Province, and did good service in the Boxer troubles of the following year. The Regiment was reduced in 1902 from about 1,300 to about 500 men, and is now being disbanded.

Weihaiwei is not yet self-supporting, being dependent on grants from the British Exchequer, but the financial situation is gradually improving, the revenue raised locally having risen from about $22,000 in 1901–2 to over $90,000 in 1904–5, while the Imperial grants have been reduced from £11,250 in 1901–2 and £12,000 in 1902–3 to £3,000 in 1904–5 and £4,500 in 1905–6.[1]

The revenue is mainly derived from rents of government property and from licences, Great Britain being pledged not to impose customs duties, or, if any are levied, to hand over the proceeds to the Chinese Government.

The expenditure in 1904–5 amounted to rather over $150,000, the chief items being Public Works, especially the construction of roads.

Products and Trade. The hills of the mainland are said to be rich in minerals, copper, tin, and iron ore have been found, and a gold

[1] The increase in 1905–6 is due to the necessity for making additional provision for a Police Force in view of the final disbandment of the Chinese Regiment.

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mining company has been started. It is, however, not yet known whether any of these metals can be worked at a profit. At present the only industries are agriculture, straw-plaiting, and the breeding of silkworms.

Grain of various kinds and many varieties of fruit and vegetables are cultivated, and there appears to be some prospect of establishing a remunerative traffic in bean-cake and bean-oil, in which there is a large trade at the neighbouring treaty-port of Chifu. The trade of the dependency is steadily increasing, but has not yet assumed any importance.

Communications and distances.

There is a regular weekly mail service between Weihaiwei and Shanghai, which is some 600 miles distant, and frequent communication by steamers with the latter port and with Chifu, which lies about 40 miles to the West. A cable to Chifu places the dependency in telegraphic connexion with the rest of the world.

Climate.

Weihaiwei is the only Asiatic dependency of Great Britain outside the Tropics, and therefore its climate would naturally contrast favourably with those of the colonies and dependencies already described. Its excellence, however, is not merely relative, as it is generally regarded as being one of the best in the world.

There is a wide range of temperature in the course of the year, but extremes of heat and cold are alike unknown. The winter is dry and bracing, and the heat in summer not oppressive, while the annual rainfall averages only about 20 inches. The coldest months are January and February, and the warmest June, July, and August.

General.

Leaving out of account any considerations of the strategic value of Weihaiwei, as to which opinions have differed widely, it may be pointed out that the dependency possesses a harbour which is reputed to be the best in North China, that it lies at the opening of the Gulf of Pechili, close to the centre of the government of the Chinese Empire, and that it is a free port,—circumstances which justify some hope for its

commercial future. Even as a sanatorium for British sailors, soldiers, and civilians in the Far East, it seems to be well worth the small sum which it costs to the British taxpayer.

It is of interest to note that most of the arguments which have from time to time been adduced to show that Weihaiwei has no prospects were, or might have been, urged to prove that the settlement at Hong Kong was doomed to failure.

The island is barren: so is Hong Kong. The population of the mainland is poverty-stricken[1]. In 1847 it was pointed out[2] that Hong Kong 'was situated at the most impoverished part of a coast-line of 2,000 miles'. It has to compete with the flourishing port of Chifu: Hong Kong has had to compete with the far greater port of Canton. Great Britain has given pledges to Germany to construct no railways from Weihaiwei into the interior: Hong Kong and Kowloon have thriven without any railways.

It would, perhaps, be idle to contend that there is any prospect of Weihaiwei becoming a second Hong Kong, for it is not, to the same extent as Hong Kong, situated on the main highway of trade; but it would be equally idle to ignore the example afforded by Hong Kong of a settlement which has flourished under British control in the face of apparently overwhelming difficulties.

[1] Some well-qualified observers deny that the population of the territory is poor according to Chinese standards.

[2] By Mr. R. M. Martin, formerly Treasurer of Hong Kong. His *China* (1847) contains a chapter entitled 'Hong Kong, its position, prospects, character, and utter worthlessness in every point of view to England.'

Books and Publications.

In addition to official publications, including the Hong Kong *Civil List*, which contains an outline history of the colony, and to the various histories of China and the Chinese wars, reference should be made to E. J. Eitel's *History of Hong Kong* (1895), and to the *Directory and Chronicle of China, Japan*, &c. (published annually). *The Territory of Weihaiwei* by C. E. Bruce-Mitford (1902) contains a full account of the dependency.

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